

THE ECLECTIC REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1806.

Art. I. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture; on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and internal Improvement of the Country.*
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IT is pleasing to reflect that a pursuit so essential as agriculture, to personal comfort and national prosperity, has at length been rescued from the exclusive controul of ignorance and prejudice. The occupations of husbandry, which have engaged the pen of a Varro, and immortalized the most elegant poet of antiquity, are no longer disdained by men of science and ability; and we observe with pleasure that the president of the Royal Society contributes, jointly with a cottager occupying three acres of land, to the contents of the volume before us. A spirit of agricultural improvement, especially in this island, has lately been aroused; and its progress has been far more rapid than at any previous period, in districts formerly enslaved by a bigoted and repulsive obstinacy in error. Much is our country indebted to the individual exertions of noble patrons, and intelligent cultivators; to the endeavours of our various societies, for the promotion of agriculture; and especially, to the NATIONAL BOARD, whose labours have been directed to every county, and extended to every collateral object.

The county-surveys published by the Board, are, even in their present imperfect state, interesting and valuable; and when the amended reports are completed, they will form a basis of information, on which the statesman may safely build his theory, and the agriculturist his practice. In the speech of Lord Carrington, the president of the Board of Agriculture, expressing his regret that these reports are not completed, it is remarked,

' But a sufficient degree of agricultural knowledge is so rarely united with the power of explaining it with perspicuity and method, that notwithstanding all my endeavours, I have seldom succeeded in finding persons with sufficient ability and inclination to undertake this work; but as it is one of the greatest importance. I hope that the members of the Board, in their respective counties, will search for the most proper persons, and that they will also direct, encourage, and assist them in the detail.'

In this speech, which by the bye, we think would have occupied a more appropriate and useful place at the beginning than, where it is now inserted, nearly in the middle, of the volume, the purposes to which the attention of the Board has been directed, are thus detailed :

' To excite emulation and promote enquiry ; to encourage and diffuse improvement, in the construction and the use of instruments for abridging labour ; in adapting a proper rotation of crops, and a judicious selection of manures, to different soils ; and to endeavour, for all those purposes, to combine the results of science with the practical knowledge of agriculture : to discuss new projects ; to recommend such as are useful ; to discountenance such as are visionary and impracticable and, above all, to infuse into the minds of those honorary members that come among us, a just sense of the importance of the study of agriculture as a science, and the practice as an art.'

In the pursuit of these objects, the Board appear to have endeavoured to collect in one focus all the various lights, whether either scientific theory or unlearned practice can throw on this important pursuit.

But we are much surprised at finding in this volume some papers utterly useless and insignificant ; and could the Board be suspected of the sin of book-making, we might be apt to arraign them at our bar for that literary crime. Some former volume of the communications to the Board, possess far more propriety of arrangement, and shew more judgement in selection than the present one, the fourth published since the year 1797.

This volume contains one hundred and forty-four papers extracted from prize essays, and thirty-five articles, denominating miscellaneous papers.

The extracts from prize-essays, are classed under four heads ; and we proceed in our review of them according to the order in which they occur.

I. *On certain soils and their cultivation.* In this class there are sixteen papers, many of which display a considerable portion of practical knowledge, ingenuity and perseverance. Farmers, who receive allotments of inclosed wastes, may derive benefit from many of the observations here detailed arising from the practice of others ; and in particular, Mr. J. Ambrose of Copford, near Colchester, exhibits in his paper, No. 1, various modes of successful management of heath and peat land, that deserve attention. His paper likewise attracted notice, by the account it contains of an industrious and honest labourer on his farm, to whom three acres of sedgy bottom were let at a very low rent for ten years, at the expiration of which term, they were worth 50s. per acre, per annum, and the master who had, besides two acres of garden ground, became the owner of the house he lived in, of a good team of eight horses, a brood

wheel-waggons, and a timber-carriage; all acquired by his peculiar good management, œconomy and industry. We may, have occasion, before we close our account of this volume, to record other instances of the prosperity of little tenants, and to combat the opinions that have been held, and indeed formerly encouraged by the Board, that the letting of land in small portions is prejudicial to the general interest of agriculture.

The prize-essays from which the extracts are selected, were sent in claim of premiums offered by the Board, in the year 1802, for the best methods of conveying grass-land into tillage, and, after a certain time, restoring it to grass again, with improvement, or, at least, without injury. This is an experiment attended with danger, if not accompanied by judgement in the selection of the land so converted, and by perseverance in tillage, for a course of years, adapted to the nature of the soil. On this subject, the opinion of Mr. John Mossop of Deeping in Lincolnshire, expressed in No. xvi. is deserving of attention; advertising to rich clays, he says,

'I should be very wary of sticking my plough into land of this description, unless I might be permitted to keep it in motion for thirteen years at least; because I am persuaded when it has been laid down as well as any other land, for the first three or four years, it will not be so good as it was before it was broken up, and it will be a year or two before it become better.' 'It is not improbable but the farmer, by converting this land to tillage, for four or five years only, may lose more than he shall gain. I have no doubt of his profits while kept arable; but, after laying it down, he may lose a great part of his profits in one year, by the rot in his sheep, which is no uncommon thing. The unwary farmers have in many places suffered in this way, upon new clay-lands, where they have not been particularly careful both of their stock and draining; and even where they have been attentive to the latter, they have not been exempt from losses in the former.'

II. Draining. We are here presented with two papers; one, 'on drainage by steam,' by Mr. Savoy of Downham, and the other, 'on the time of draining,' by Mr. Taylor, of Barnham. Towards the close of the latter, Mr. Taylor details the method of under-draining observed in Norfolk, which is, perhaps, the simplest, and attended with the smallest expense. Heath, or 'ling,' if to be procured, he recommends as best to lay in the drains from the toughness and durability of its nature. To this we would add, green broom, and the spray of birch, which are very useful for the purpose.

III. Paring and burning. This important practice, which has produced unexpected and incalculable benefit, where judiciously applied, is variously represented, in the twenty-seven articles under this head; it is generally mentioned, ower, with almost unqualified praise, and is daily gaining ground against the numerous prejudices that existed against it. These

were not a little fostered by the earlier publications of the Board of Agriculture. In the outlines of their general report, presented in the year 1795, it is stated that ‘the supposed benefits resulting from the practice of paring and burning are too often counterbalanced by the evils which it occasions. It may be of use in the first breaking up of the new soils when cautiously treated, but though it affords a temporary stimulus to the soil, yet by depriving it of all those articles, which are carried off during the process of combustion, an irreparable loss is sustained.’ The erroneous impression that, by burning, the pabulum of vegetation is carried off, has been fully disproved by experience; in fact, the volumes of smoke, which accompany the operation, and the appearances of which add plausibility to the theory, consist principally of water, coloured by a small portion of oil, and do not carry with them much, if any, of the real food of plants! Theorists are widely discordant as to the mode in which this process tends to the amelioration of land; but the it is attended with surprizing advantages, experience sufficiently demonstrates.

Beside the exuberant fertility it occasions, it destroys every weed, both root and seed; and exterminates those baneful insects that often destroy the fairest prospect of the husbandman. Indeed there is scarcely any other mode of extirpating from a field that destructive plague, the wire-worm, which is often found in the richest clays. Burning has the talismanic virtue of converting every thing that is noxious, into a state of utility and profit. We should be inclined to go a step farther than is generally admitted, and say, that burning of land is not only applicable to the conversion of grass-land into tillage, but also to the restoration of arable land, that is in a foul and impoverished state, from neglect or bad husbandry. The prejudices that have arisen against this practice, where it has been tried, for there are some parts where it has been rejected merely on account of its novelty, are to be ascribed, either to its being applied to light sandy soils, which do not want decomposition but rather cohesion; or to the excessive cropping to which it has led some avaricious farmers. We may instance the trials mentioned by the Rev. Mr. Pryce, in Breconshire, one of which is upon poor sandy soil; 1, Rye. 2, Oats. 3, Oats. 4, Oats. 5, Summer, fallowed, limed, and dunged. 6, Rye. 7, Oats laid down with rye only. Another is upon red loam; 1, Rye, and five successive crops of oats, then laid down with hay-seeds! This is indeed, as he calls it, ‘wretched bad management.’ Nor can we, notwithstanding its success, approve of the course adopted by J. Wynhall, Esq. of Rossshire, after paring and burning, (No. xxvi.) wheat, barley, pease, barley, and then laid down, which, as a note observes, must certainly be called overcropping.

The principal differences, in the methods observed in paring and burning, are, first; whether to burn in small or in large heaps; and secondly, whether only to scorch the soil into black ashes, or to burn it into red ashes. It would lead us too far to enter into the opinions entertained on these subjects, on which, in fact, it is not theory, but experience, that must decide. We recommend the perusal of No. xix., by Mr. Payne, of Frickly, near Doncaster; of No. xxii., by Mr. Maxey, of Knottery, in Bedfordshire; and of the experiments on burnt clay in No. xxxiii., by the Rev. G. Swayne, of Pucklechurch, near Bristol.

A good paring-plough is a desideratum in agriculture; the hand-labour, by this breast-plough, being both wasteful of time, and imperfectly performed. We are glad to learn from Mr. Mac Murdo, in No. xliv., that it is his intention 'to adopt a practice recommended in Mr. Hale's book, entitled, *A complete Body of Husbandry*, a work published in the year 1756, where, in chapter 39., the process of "burn-baiting" is fully described, and a species of horse-plough to be used as a substitute for the paring-spade, is described and warmly recommended.'

A paring-plough is described, and a representation given of it, in the Encyclopædia Britannica; but we do not know whence it has been taken, nor does the construction of it, though simple, appear adequate to the purpose of turning up the sward in a proper direction.

IV. *Manuring.* The twenty articles under this head furnish very little information, in proportion to the interesting and important nature of the subject. A fact is stated in No. i., by Mr. W. Jones, of Foxdown-heath, near Wellington, which was new to us; but having heard it corroborated, whilst writing this article, by an intelligent and practical farmer, we insert it. 'Wheat produced from lime manure, has the bran thinner, and the grain heavier, than that produced by dung. Wishing to ascertain the supposed difference in weight, I have referred to a very intelligent baker, who assures me, that the difference is not less than two pounds, on a Winchester bushel of about sixty pounds weight, so that this constitutes a difference of a thirtieth-part of the meal in favour of lime.' In No. lii., though foreign to this subject, is introduced the description of a small kiln, (nine feet high, three and a half wide), for burning lime, for the consumption of a farm, used by T. G. Rawson, Esq. of Cardrington, in Ireland, which heats a large boiler for water, and two smaller ones for various domestic purposes, besides two ovens and a tiled stage for draining corn. We deem it worthy of imitation by every farmer, who has the opportunity of obtaining limestone, and the fuel necessary for the purpose, in the vicinity of his homestead. Mr. Rawson asserts, that

the value of the lime paid the expences of fuel and attendance.

The anonymous writer of No. LIV. states, a plain and easy method of ascertaining the properties of marl, (here called malm) viz. dry a small piece, and immerse it in a wineglass of vinegar; if it instantly begins to ferment, and extracts the acid, then it may be depended on to answer a valuable purpose. But though this method will ascertain the presence of carbonate of lime, it cannot determine the quantity of that substance, nor consequently the comparative goodness of the sample. We would therefore recommend, in preference, the method proposed by Mr. Davy in his essay on the analysis of soils. The process, though perfectly scientific, is scarcely less simple than the one just mentioned. We transcribe it from p. 309 of the volume:

' Should the finely divided soil be sufficiently calcareous to effervesce very strongly with acids, a very simple method may be adopted for ascertaining the quantity of carbonate of lime, and one sufficiently accurate in all common cases. Carbonate of lime in all states, contains a determinate proportion of carbonic acid, i. e. about 45 per cent., so that when the quantity of this elastic fluid given out by any soil during the solution of its calcareous matter in an acid is known, either in weight or measure, the quantity of carbonate of lime may be easily discovered. When the process by diminution of weight is employed, two parts of the acid and one part of the matter of the soil must be weighed in separate bottles, and very slowly mixed together till the effervescence ceases; the difference between their weight before and after the experiment, denotes the quantity of carbonic acid lost; for every four grains and a half of which, ten grains of carbonate of lime must be estimated.'

A fanciful and impracticable proposal for ascertaining the quantity of manure necessary for new lays, is made in No. LV. by Mr. Birkbeck, of Warnborough; who says,

' Let manure, equal to the whole exhaustion incurred during the course of tillage, be replaced on the grass. To ascertain this, an account should be kept of the straw and grain produced by each acre. The same weight of grain and oil-cake consumed by horses, cattle, hogs, littered on an equal quantity of straw will furnish an equivalent manure sufficiently exact for our purpose.'

Mr. Payne, of Frechley, in No. LXVI., insists that the winter season is an improper time for laying on manure. He will allow that the 'good old time' from the middle of July to the end of August, is in general the best for carrying on manuring; but should that season escape, the farmer ought not to lose the opportunity of a frosty winter, or delay carting his manure till the spring. How would it interfere with the seed-time? and should the weather be wet and the land heavy, every practical

agriculturist well knows what reason he would have to bewail his delusion, in supposing that frost and snow dissipate the fertilizing power of manure, which is the position on which this gentleman founds his maxim.

V. *Fallowing.* The two papers on this subject, seem to have been intended as contrasts to each other. The first, No. LXVII. anonymous, is a string of assertions and similes, without argument, to prove that summer-fallowing is prejudicial, and the author goes so far as to say that one summer-fallow will exhaust land more than ten crops. But the philosophically just principles of the next paper, No. LXVIII., by the Rev. Dr. Graham, of Aberfoil, near Stirling, sufficiently evince the falsity of the opinion that the land sustains injury, by exposure to the influence of the atmosphere and the summer's sun.

Dr. G. has aptly illustrated his observations on the beneficial influence of the light and air, by a remark of Mr. Berthollet, on the analogy that is found to exist between the solar rays, and oxygenated muriatic acid now used in bleaching, in their nature and effects.

His remarks approach very near to establishing the paradox, that the exposure of the surface of the earth, to the air and sun, and the shading of it interstitially, by a leafy crop, produce the same effects, though in different degrees. An important advantage, however, in a shading crop, we conceive to be the detention of that moisture, which is essential to a putrefactive process. The principal uses of summer-fallowing are; the pulverisation of the soil, and the destruction of insects, accumulated during a course of cropping. Until these essential purposes can be equally answered by other methods, let us not explode fallows altogether, notwithstanding the specious temptation of the saving of a year's rent and labour. We do not wish to be understood, however, that fallows are always necessary, for we have known some land that has scarcely been fallowed for fifty or sixty years; but in this case, the land was extraordinarily good, and it received such a course of hoeing, approaching to a complete eradication of the weeds, as cannot always be adopted. Summer fallows, however, are scarcely ever necessary on light lands which are easily tilled, and to which the drill-husbandry can be advantageously applied.

VI. *Operations of Tillage.* Of the five papers under this title, the first two Nos. LXIX., and LXX., relate to deep-ploughing; the third, numbered by some mistake XLI., to trench-ploughing; No. LXXI., to rolling; No. LXXII., describes a new plough-share; but none of them offers any thing material for observation, excepting that Mr. Pung, in the paper marked, XLI., mentions the advantage of double furrowing; which is certainly of use, not only upon grass, but also on clover-lays:

but we suppose Mr. P. was a stranger to the skim-coulter, ~~and~~ at Avely, Upminster, Romford, and the adjacent places, by which the same operation is performed, and every purpose answered, with one ploughing.

VII. Courses of Crops. These are seven papers on this subject; of these No. LXXXIII., by Mr. Wilson, of Balborough, near Chesterfield, and No. LXXV., by Mr. Cussans, of Bedhampton-Park, near Portsmouth, point out the best mode of laying down pasture, in which the future thickness of the sward and exemption from weeds, are of the first importance. The mixture of two loads of rapeseed, with the grasses, sowed by Mr. C., is a novelty, a trial of which may be recommended; it gives immediate food for the sheep, and by that means assists a manure: but it may be doubted whether the spreading leaves of the plant are as useful in preserving the young and tender shoots of the grass from being parched up by the sun, on the first stage of their appearance, as they are injurious in stifling or retarding the growth of the sward. The other papers in this class contain nothing worthy of remark, and are beyond measure insignificant.

VIII. Culture of the crops introduced on breaking up grassland; Which is subdivided into heads relative to the sorts of crops, *viz.*

1. Wheat. On which there are ten papers. The first, No. LXXX., by Dr. Fothergill, of Bath, contains an extract from the transactions of the Massachusetts Society, for promoting agriculture, with an account of a new species of wheat, which, whilst it possesses other valuable qualities, ripens fifteen or twenty days earlier, and weighs upon an average five pounds in a bushel more, than other wheat. Dr. F. expected to procure a sample of it, which he promises to communicate to the Board. But the most useful paper of the ten, is No. LXXXIII., by Mr. William Jones, of Foxdown-house, Wellington, who adduces his experience, and reasons with ability as to the best temperature of the soil, and the proper time for sowing wheat.

2. Oats. Four papers relative to the sort and quantity of seed.

3. Beans. One article on the harvesting of beans.

4. Turnips. The first paper on this head, No. xciv., by the Rev. J. W. Parsons, of Upper Hadnock, Monmouth, gives an account of a preparation of turnipseed, as a preventative against the fly. This, if confirmed by subsequent experience, may be of importance.

'The turnipseeds were divided into equal parts. A mixture of nitre, sulphur, and common salt, was thrown on one half, enough to absorb the water with which it was previously moistened. This prepared seed was then mixed with the other half. At the close of each day's plough-

ing, one pint to a statute acre was sown before the first harrowing, and another before the last harrowing.'

In conclusion, Mr. P. particularly advises to sow at the close of each day's ploughing on the fresh earth. The plot thus sown entirely escaped the fly, while the adjoining land totally failed more than once. We pass over the other five papers in this class without comment.

5. *Cabbages.* One paper by Mr. Amos, of Brothertoft, near Boston, who strongly recommends the culture of this plant.

6. *Winter-tares.* One paper on the mode of consumption.

7. *Potatoes.* Amongst the six articles on this root, we particularly notice No. civ., by Mr. Wright, of Pickworth, who relates an experiment of plaiting it, by the shoots that issue from the potatoe in spring. When compared with potatoes planted by cuttings, the result was in favour of the shoots, both in tops and roots; and, as most of the potatoes exposed for sale in the spring have had their shoots rubbed off, though the latter are not converted to any use, he considers that their being preserved for planting would be a material saving of food. We wish likewise to make honourable mention of this gentleman's liberal offer to the Board, to conduct any agricultural experiments they may point out, free of expence, unless attended with actual loss; which offer was accepted, and Mr. Wright has since executed several trials at the recommendation of the Board; some of which are detailed in No. xxvi. of the miscellaneous papers.

8. *Hemp.* 9. *Flax.* 10. *Woad.* 11. *Rape.* 12. *Carrots.*

IX. *Grasses.* Nine papers on this head, enumerate various proportions of seed recommended by the writers, for laying down land; in which we deem the quality of the land to be a more essential qualification than most of them have considered it; and think that general recommendations, will not equally suit for strong clay, and for light sandy or chalky soils. It may be doubted, whether red clover is fit to mix with seeds for laying down pasture, being prejudicial to the young grass in the summer, from its great succulence and the space it covers, and leaving its naked haulm in the winter. Rib-grass, *plantago lanceolata*, is recommended by several, but by Mr. Joseph Atkinson, of Northumberland, in No. cxxi., it is strongly reprobated as a most pernicious weed: we have not had any particular opportunities of judging of its merits, yet have always understood that it was a good perennial grass for the formation of sward. In No. cxxii., by Mr. Thomas Chatterton, of Waplington, caraway is recommended for pasture, all kinds of cattle being fond of it; it was considered as particularly

serviceable, where it had been tried, to the new lamb even. It grows in fields about Hull, where the poor people gather the seed for sale to the druggists. This plant is perennial; the root large, deep, and succulent; the herbage appears and disappears early.

X. *Feeding or mowing.* Of the four contributors on the controverted point, whether to feed or mow grass the first season, two are on one side of the question, and two on the other. We think that no particular rule can be laid down, and that the nature of the soil, and the predominant weather at the time, ought in all cases to govern the decision.

XI. *Live Stock.* It is only the first paper under this head that properly relates to live stock; the others are, on dairies, cake-feeding, soiling, horse-dealing, and, *O admirandum!* a short paper, No. CXXXVIII., by Mr. Mackenzie, of Glasgow, on *hay and straw soup!*

XII. *Rent.* The calculations in the paper on this head, No. CXXXIX., by Mr. William Cullingworth, of Daventry, by which he estimates that 13s. 3d. per acre should be the increased rent for permission to break up old pasture now under lease, proceed on the principle that the tenant must not take an additional profit by tilling land, beyond what he got by grazing it, and that all the additional profit should go into the landlord's pocket. This is very unfair; the advantage should at least be divided, the tenant contributing his additional labour, for the sake of an additional profit.

XIII. *Grazing and Tillage compared.* Under this title we find a paper, No. CXL., by Mr. R. Brown, of Markie, Haddington, on the comparative quantity of food produced by arable and pasture land; which is of little value, as he does not appear to have any good data to substantiate his calculation.

(To be concluded in our next Number.)

Art. II. Good's Translation of Lucretius on the Nature of Things:
(Concluded from p. 603.)

OUR task is now to inquire, how far Mr. Good has successfully availed himself of the peculiar advantages he possessed, in the actual execution of his version.

In addition to the requisites of a competent translator which we have attributed to him, *fidelity* is a quality of the first importance. He should convey to the reader's mind all the ideas, which his author has expressed, without deficiency, without addition, and in all their native delicacy of form, proportion, and dependance. It is superlatively difficult, perhaps it is impossible, fully to exemplify this quality, in a poetical translation. Though Mr. G. is intitled to this praise in a high

degree, we are compelled to say that he has sometimes deviated from the right course which he generally holds. Sometimes, for a material thought in the original, we seek in vain in the translation. Much more frequently we observe a redundancy, into which Mr. G. was, we doubt not, reluctantly compelled, by the necessities of versification, though he has not taken up the shackles of rhyme; or by the apparent desirableness of illustrating, by paraphrase, an abrupt transition, or a clause concise to obscurity. These additions are not only of epithets and adjuncts, but occasionally of half lines and lines. In a few instances, we have differed from the translator on the meaning of a passage.

The character of Mr. G.'s poetry is masterly elegance. His versification is easy, his numbers commonly flowing and harmonious, and his expression judiciously select; but his inversions are awkward and intricate. The philosophical parts of the original have frequently a ruggedness and complexity, which Mr. G., aided by the copious diction of modern science, has with much felicity made more easy and intelligible.

It is in the pathetic, the awful, the tender passages, the bursts of simple majesty, and the warm pictures of visible nature, that Lucretius pre-eminently shines, and that Mr. G., we must confess, appears to us the most deficient. In the translator's hands they are, certainly, fair and elegant, and worthy of commendation. It is the comparison with the grand original, that makes them seem faint and feeble; as the most brilliant artificial lights languish, when exposed to the splendour of the sun.

We shall now adduce some passages of the version, annexing, for the ease of comparison, references to the lines of the original as numbered in Wakefield's or Eichstadt's edition, whose emended text varies by a few figures, from the numeration of the verses in the common copies.

We shall first cite the celebrated picture of superstition, and its sanguinary horrors as evinced in the sacrifice of Iphigenia, by Agamemnon. Book I. v. 63—102; of Mr. G.'s translation, v. 63—110.

“ Not thus mankind. Them long the tyrant power
 Of SUPERSTITION sway'd, uplifting proud
 Her head to heaven, and with horriific limbs
 Brooding o'er earth; till he, the man of Greece,
 Auspicious rose, who first the combat dar'd,
And broke in twain the monster's iron rod.
 No thunder him, no fell revenge pursued
 Of heaven incens'd, or deities in arms.
 Urg'd rather, hence, with more determin'd soul,
 To burst through nature's portals, from the crowd
 With jealous caution clos'd; the flaming walls

Of heaven to scale, and dart his dauntless eye,
Till the vast whole beneath him stood displayed.
Hence taught he us, triumphant, what might spring,
And what forbear: what powers inherent lurk,
And where their bounds and issues. And, hence, we
Triumphant, too, o'er Superstition rise,
Contemn her terrors, and unfold the heav'ns.

" Nor deem the truths PHILOSOPHY reveals
Corrupt the mind, or prompt to impious deeds.
No: Superstition may, and nought so soon,
But wisdom never. Superstition 'twas
Urg'd the fell Grecian chiefs, with virgin blood,
To stain the virgin altar. Barbarous deed!
And fatal to their laurels! Aulis saw,
For there Diana reigns, th' unholly rite.
Around she look'd; the pride of Grecian maids,
The lowly Iphigenia, *round she look'd,—*
Her lavish tresses, spurning still the bond
Of sacred fillet, flaunting o'er her cheeks,—
And sought in vain protection. She survey'd
Near her, her sad, sad sire; th' officious priests
Repentant half, and hiding their keen steel
And crowds of gazers, weeping as they view'd.
Dumb with alarm, with supplicating knee,
And lifted eye, she sought compassion still;
Fruitless and unavailing: *vain her youth,*
Her innocence and beauty; vain the boast
Of regal birth; and vain that first herself
Lisp'd the dear name of Father, eldest born.
Forc'd from the suppliant posture, straight she view'd
The altar full prepar'd: not there to blend
Connubial vows, and light the bridal torch;
But, at the moment when mature in charms,
While Hymen call'd aloud, to fall, e'en then,
A father's victim, and the price to pay,
Of Grecian navies, favour'd thus with gales.—
Such are the crimes that superstition prompts!"

The words here distinguished by the Italic character have no correspondent authority in the original; and hence our readers may form a tolerable estimate of the translator's occasional expletives. Yet, it must be confessed, that these additions, though destitute of an archetype in the text, are seldom found to contain an idea which is not naturally deducible from it.

The exquisite clause,

' *Humana ante oculos fede quom vita jaceret*
In terris,—

is rendered in a very defective and sinking manner by Mr. G's.
" Not thus mankind :" and the fine and touching metaphor is totally lost.

The passage,

— uplifting proud

Her head to heaven, and with horrific limbs
Brooding o'er earth ;—

strong and beautiful as it is, does not justly represent the sense of

*Quæ caput a cœli regionibus obtendebat,
Horribili super adspectu mortalibus instans :*

which merely expresses that the monster presented her head from heaven (that is, that superstition was a perversion of religious notions) menacing mankind with the horrors of her countenance.

V. 80. “—and unfold the heavens.” To readers in general, we are apprehensive, this expression will suggest the thought of throwing open the knowledge of celestial mysteries; whereas the idea of Lucretius is, that the triumph over superstition will raise us to an equality with heaven.

V. 91, 92. The poet represents the fillet, which bound the victim's virgin hair, as flowing over each of her cheeks: but the translator has transferred the image to the “lavish tresses” themselves.

The ideas so forcibly conveyed by the poet's “*casta inceste*,” so moving to the strongest feelings of pity and indignation, can scarcely, if at all, be traced in the translation. While, on the other hand, the paraphrastic rendering of “*rubendi tempore in ipso*,”

— at the moment when mature in charms,
While Hymen called aloud,—

sacrifices, to unnecessary amplification, the characteristic simplicity of the author.

The spirited line with which the description is so admirably closed, loses all its animation in Mr. G.'s

— the price to pay.
Of Grecian navies, favoured thus with gales.

The preceding passage we have selected, not as a subject of criticism, but on account of its intrinsic merit. Nor are these remarks on the translation produced by a hypercritical affectation of excessive delicacy, but because it is our duty to furnish our readers with the best opportunities, that our limits will permit, for the formation of a just opinion on every work, that comes beneath our notice. We shall not extend the same plan of minute examination to the following extracts; since the passage already introduced is, in these respects, a fair specimen of the whole; and since we freely profess, that Mr. G.'s style of translation has fewer of those blemishes, than the majority of similar works in our language.

In his long note on the story of Iphigenia, Mr. G. repeats

the common observation that "this story is generally supposed to be derived from that of Jephtha, so pathetically related in the book of Judges." We think, with Grotius and most other commentators, that this vow was fulfilled by her consecration to perpetual celibacy: Mr. G. should at least have mentioned this interpretation.—With regard to Iphigenia, Sophocles (very expressly Elect. 574) Virgil, Lucretius, Horace, and Propertius relate that she was actually sacrificed: This story has its parallels, in the anecdotes of Idomeneus and Aristomenes. Euripides, Ovid, and Martial, maintain that a stag was accepted in exchange. Similar substitutions are mentioned among the Spartans, the Thebans, and the Phalerians in Italy. We see little reason for referring any of these (for if any, why not all) to the vow of Jephtha, or with Bochart, to the history of Abraham. Mr. G. ambiguously asserts, that the tale of Iphigenia "was well known to the world from the time of Homer to Euripides." But Homer, who like Lucretius calls her Iphianassa, speaks of her as alive in the tenth year of the war. Il. B. IX. l. 145. It is probable, that the tale was current among the Greek rhapsodists subsequent to the age of Homer, and that Euripides moulded it to suit his own purpose, and produce stag effect.

Our next specimen shall be the famed exordium of the second Book, v. 1—36.

' How sweet to stand, when tempests tear the main,
On the firm cliff, and mark the seaman's toil !
Not that another's danger soothes the soul,
But from such toil how sweet to feel secure !
How sweet, at distance from the strife, to view
Contending hosts, and hear the clash of war !
But sweeter far, on Wisdom's height secure
Upheld by truth, to fix our firm abode ;
To watch the giddy crowd that, deep below,
For ever wander in pursuit of bliss ;
To mark the strife for honours, and renown,
For wit and wealth insatiate, ceaseless urg'd,
Day after day, with labour unrestrain'd.

' O wretched mortals !—race perverse and blind !
Through what dread dark, what perilous pursuits,
Pass ye this round of being !—know ye not
Of all ye toil for, nature nothing asks,
But for the body freedom from disease,
And sweet unanxious quiet for the mind ?

' And little claims the body, to be sound :
But little serves to strew the paths we tread
With joys beyond e'en nature's utmost wish.
What, though the dome be wanting, whose proud walls
A thousand lamps irradiate, propt sublime

By frolic forms of youths in massy gold,
 Flinging their splendours o'er the midnight feast :
 Though gold and silver blaze not o'er the board,
 Nor music echo round the gaudy roof ?
 Yet listless laid the velvet grass along,
 Near gliding streams, by shadowy trees o'erarch'd,
 Such pomps we need not ; such still less, when spring
 Leads forth her laughing train, and the warm year
 Paints the green meads with roseat flowers profuse.
 On down reclin'd, or wrapp'd in purple robe,
 The thirsty fever burns with heat as fierce
 As when its victim on a pallet pants.'

We shall now present to our readers a selection of extracts, designed to exhibit some of the physical doctrines of the poet; from which they will, with pleasing interest, perceive how accurately he observed natural phenomena, how philosophical were his reasonings, how happy many of his conjectures, and how frequently he has almost, if not altogether, anticipated various important discoveries in the system of nature, which, by the aid of experience, the improvement of instruments, and the progress of mathematics, have been ascertained in the most recent times.

That there exists a vacuum, and that the gravitating power of all bodies is directly as their quantities of matter, are principles of the Newtonian school, for which Lucretius has ably contended. Book I. v. 341—364; in the translation, v. 385—411.

' But what more clear, in earth or heaven sublime,
 Or the vast ocean, than, in various modes
 That various matter moves ? which, but for space,
 'Twere vain t' expect; and vainer yet to look
 For procreative power, educing still
 Kinds from their kinds through all revolving time.

' True, things are solid deem'd, but know that those
 Deem'd so the most, are rare and unconjoin'd.
 From rocks and caves translucent lymph distils,
 And from the tough bark drops the healing balm.
 The genial meal, with mystic power, pervades
 Each aerie of life; and the grove swells,
 And yields its various fruit, sustain'd alone
 From the pure food, propell'd through root and branch.
 Sound pierces marble ; through reclusest walls
 The bosom tale transmits : and the keen frost
 E'en to the marrow winds its sinuous way.—
 Destroy all vacuum then, close every pore,
 And, if thou caust, for such events account.

' Say, why of equal bulk, in equal scale
 Are things oft found unequal in their poise ? '
 O'er the light wool the grosser lead prevails
 With giant force. But were th' amount alike

Of matter each contain'd, alike the weight
 Would prove perpetual: for, from matter sole,
 Flows weight and moment, ever prone to earth:
 While vacant space, nor weight nor moment knows.'

The same subject is thus further elucidated, in almost the very terms of experimental pneumatics: Book II. v. 230—239; in the translation, v. 234—244.

' For though, when urg'd
 Through the pure air, or clear translucent wave,
 Doubtless all pond'rous forms more swift descend;
 This, from the variance of resistance sole,
 Flows, by such fluids form'd 'gainst things unlike,
 The grosser quick overpowering. But pure space,
 In every part, in every hour the same,
 Throughout resists not, the demanded path
 Yielding submissive. Hence, in equal time,
 Through the blank void, unequal weights descend
 Of every fancied variance.'

This, our young readers know, is familiarly illustrated in the air pump.

That the philosophy of Lucretius coincides, to an exactness almost perfect, with the doctrines of Locke and Newton on the secondary qualities of bodies, the ensuing passage will show. Book II. 730, &c.—808; of the translation, v. 743—818.

' Deem not thou,
 When ought of substance, black or white, the view
 Solicits obvious,—deem not, in the germs
 Of embryon matter, black or white inheres,
 Or aught besides of tint, where aught occurs,
 Rousing the vision; since the seeds of things
 Live void of colours, actual or conceiv'd.

' Hence not essential colours to the form
 Of things created: frequent e'en ourselves,
 Mid the deep shade of night, by touch alone
 Prove what surrounds us, every hue extinct.

' All hues, moro'er, to all by turns convert;
 A change primordial seeds can ne'er sustain.

' But though material atoms thus live void
 Of hue; still many a differing form is theirs,
 Whence hues they gender, and their variance stamp.

' And, since all colours live but in the light,
 Were hues essential to the seeds of things,
 These, too, would die in darkness: for, resolve,
 What hues exist beneath the midnight gloom?
 Hues born of sun-beams, changing but their shades
 As, playful, changes the refracted ray?

Thus the gay pigeon, as his plume he waves,
Drinks in new tinctures from the noon-tide blaze :
Now glows the ruby, and now, ting'd with blue,
Sports the green emerald o'er his glossy neck.
Thus, too, the peacock, as direct or bent
Falls the full beam, wears each prismatic dye.
Since then th' impinging light each hue creates,
So, without light, each, instant, must expire.'

Did our limits permit, we should with pleasure insert the long and energetic, though sparingly adorned, detail of the phænomena and cause of lightning. We must, however, be contented with only a short portion of it; but this, we conceive, will excite the inquiring naturalist to peruse the whole. Lib. VI. v. 159, in the translation, v. 163.

' But the blue light'ning springs from seeds of fire
With seeds conflicting mid the war of clouds.
As when the flint with flint, or steel, contends,
Swift flows the flash, and sparkles all around.

' Then earlier see we too, the rushing blaze
Than hear the roar, since far the fluent films
Of sight move speedier than of laggard sound.
As, when the woodman fells some branch remote,
It drops conspicuous e'er the bounding blow
Strike on the ear :—so the keen lightning far
Anticipates the thunder, though alike
Rear'd from one cause, from one concussion rear'd.

' Or, haply, hence, the winged lustre springs
Trembling amid the tempest ; that when air,
Pent in the hollow of a cloud, ferments,
That hollow broad'ning, as already sung,
And close its sides condensing, the pent air
Heats from its motion ; as from motion, heats
All sight surveys ; work'd oft to flame, and oft
Melted, as melt the missile balls, at times,
Of lead shot rapid. Heated thus, at length,
Th' expanded air bursts sudden from its tomb,
Scatt'ring long trails of coruscating fire.
Then rolls the dread explosion, after heard,
Since sound than light far earlier meets the sense.
Yet scenes like these in clouds alone exist
Of utmost depth, whirl'd mass o'er mass immense.'

We shall close our extracts, more apprehensive of overpassing our own limits than of fatiguing our readers' patience, with the pathognomical description of the plague at Athens, the inimitable history of which, had they written nothing else, would have immortalized the names of Thucydides, and of Lucretius. Mr. G.'s professional studies and practice have endowed him with particular advantages, in the transfusion of this noble effort of

scientific and poetic genius. Book VI. v. 1143—1202, of
translation, v. 1186—1252.

‘ The head first flam'd with inward heat ; the eyes
Redden'd with fire suffused : the purple jaws
Sweated with bloody ichor : ulcers foul
Crept o'er the vocal path, obstructing close ;
And the prompt tongue, expounder of the mind,
O'erflow'd with gore, enfeebled in its post,
Hoarse in its accent, harsh beneath the touch.

‘ And when the morbid effluence through the throat
Had reach'd the lungs, and fill'd the fault'ring heart,
Then all the pow'rs of life were loosen'd ; forth
Crept the spent breath most fetid from the mouth,
As steams the putrid carcase : every power
Fail'd through the soul,—the body,—and alike
Lay they liquefent at the gates of death.
While with these dread, insufferable ills
A restless anguish join'd, companion close,
And sighs commixt with groans ; and hiccough deep,
And keen convulsive twitchings ceaseless urg'd,
Day after day, o'er every tortur'd limb,
The wearied wretch still wearying with assault.

‘ Yet ne'er too hot the system couldst thou mark
Outwards, but rather tepid to the touch :
Ting'd still with purple dye, and brandish'd o'er
With traits of caustic ulcers, like the blaze
Of erysipelas. But all within
Burn'd to the bone ; the bosom heav'd with flames
Fierce as a furnace, nor would once endure
The lightest vest thrown loosely o'er the limbs.
All to the winds, and many to the waves,
Careless, resign'd them ; in the gelid stream
Plunging their fiery bodies, to be cool'd :
While some, wide-gasping, into wells profound
Rush'd all abrupt ; and such the red hot thirst
Unquenchable that parch'd them, amplest show'rs
Seem'd but as dew-drops to th' unsated tongue.

‘ Nor e'er relax'd the sickness ; the rack'd frame
Lay all exhausted, and, in silence dread,
Appall'd and doubtful mused the Healing Art.
For the broad eye-balls, burning with disease,
Roll'd in full stare, for ever void of sleep,
And told the pressing danger ; nor alone
Told it, for many a kindred symptom throng'd.
The mind's pure spirit, all despondent, rav'd ;
The brow severe ; the visage fierce and wild ;
The ears distracted, fill'd with ceaseless sounds ;
Frequent the breath ; or pond'rous, oft, and rare ;
The neck with pearls bedew'd of glist'ning sweat ;
Scarcely the spittle, thin, of saffron dye,
Salt, with hoarse cough scarce labour'd from the throat.

The limbs each trembled ; every tendon twitch'd
 Spread o'er the hands ; and from the feet extreme
 O'er all the frame a gradual coldness crept.

Then, tow'rds the last, the nostrils close collaps'd ;
 The nose acute ; eyes hollow ; temples scoop'd ;
 Frigid the skin, retracted ; o'er the mouth
 A ghastly grin ; the shrivelled forehead tense ;
 The limbs outstretch'd for instant death prepar'd ;
 Till with the eighth descending sun, for few
 Reach'd his ninth lustre, life for ever ceas'd.

' And though, at times, th' infected death escap'd
 From sanguineous organs, or the lapse profuse
 Of black ting'd faces, fate pursued them still.
 Hectic and void of strength, consumption pale
 Prey'd on their vitals ; or, with head-ache keen,
 Oft from the nostrils tides of blood corrupt
 Pour'd unrestrain'd, and wasted them to shades.'

The voluminous and heterogenous farrago of annotations is highly amusing and instructive; but the plan it pursues is so unbounded, that it might almost be extended to embrace the whole *Encyclopedie*. It consists of comments on the philosophical doctrines of the poem, digressions on the discordant dogmas of the different Grecian schools, sketches of scientific history, and numerous statements of the discoveries and results of modern philosophy. Beside this diversified matter, our indefatigable annotator descants with feeling and judgement on the rhetorical beauties of his author; criticises the labours of former editors and translators; brings to view the passages of Grecian masters, both poets and philosophers, whom he supposes the Epicurean bard to have imitated or followed; and pours forth, with a lavish hand, the treasures which his great attainments as a linguist, and his extensive reading have enabled him to amass, under the head of resemblances, parallelisms, allusions, and supposed imitations of his text, from Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, English, German, Arabic, and Persian poets, and from the HOLY SCRIPTURES. Mr. G.'s. observations on the latter class of the comparisons which he has instituted, are so much in unison with the principles which we would ever inculcate, as binding on the conscience, and richly recompensing the pains of every scholar, that we cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of transcribing them.

' In attentively perusing the poem before us, it is impossible to avoid noticing the striking resemblance which exists between many of its most beautiful passages, and various parts of the poetic books of the Scriptures: and the Abbé de St. Pierre, as well as several other continental writers, have hence conceived Lucretius to have been acquainted with them.—Be this, however, as it may; be the parallelisms I advert to, designed or accidental, I trust I shall rather be applauded than con-

demned, for thus giving a loose to the habitual inclination of my hearer, Grotius, Schultens, Lowth, and Sir William Jones, have set me the example, and while treading in the steps of such illustrious scholars, I need not be afraid of public censure. Like them I wish to prove that the SACRED PAGES are as alluring by their language, as they are important in their doctrines; and that, whatever be the boast of Greece and Rome with respect to poetic attainments, they are often equalled, and occasionally surpassed by the former. The man who, professing the Christian religion, is acquainted with the ancient Classics, ought, at the same time to be acquainted with Biblical Criticism: he has, otherwise, neglected his truest interest, and lived but for little purpose in the world. I delight in profane literature, but still more do I delight in my Bible: they are lamps that afford a mutual assistance to each other. In point of importance, however, I pretend not that they admit of comparison; and, could it once be demonstrated, that the pursuits are inconsistent with each other, I would shut up Lucretius for ever, and rejoice in the conflagration of the Alexandrian library.' Pref. pp. 15, 16, 17.

But the pursuits are *not* inconsistent with each other, as has been frequently and honourably demonstrated; and we hope will be still further shewn by increasing attestations. To the ministers of the gospel especially, and to students for the sacred office, we earnestly recommend the ardour for pre-eminence in the acquisition of solid classical attainments, in order to consecrate them to the service of the DIVINE REDEEMER. Their understanding, their taste, their dignity, and their usefulness will hence derive inexpressible accessions. What Horace has so justly said on the subserviency of cultivation to genius, may, with equal justice, be accommodated in this case.

Alterius sic
Altera poscit opem res, et conjurat amice.

There is one instance, in which we are solemnly bound to express a decided condemnation of the translator's judgement, and of his taste. A passage which Lucretius ought never to have written, and which renders a work otherwise of uncommon utility and excellence, absolutely unfit for the perusal of youth, should never have polluted the English page! Yet Mr. G. has rendered every offensive image, with disgusting and most dangerous minuteness. To have drawn, over this description, the flimsy veil of prudery, would have been still more censurable, as it would, in reality, have increased the evil, by representing it in a form less revolting. It is not a sufficient excuse to say that the whole is but a physiological dissertation. The pretence is confuted by its dress and decorations. The concluding chapters of Haller's Physiology may be very proper for the lecture-room: but who would tolerate them turned into fascinating English verses? If this work come to a second edition, which

cannot be doubted, we hope that Mr. G. for decency's sake, will blot out the pernicious pages. He has sufficient precedents for such omissions; and if he had none, it would be honourable to set the example.

The work concludes with a copious and judicious Index, which will be found of great convenience, particularly for consulting the notes.

Art. III. *Remarks on the Earl of Selkirk's Observations on the present State of the Highlands of Scotland, with a View of the Causes and probable Consequences of Emigration.* Svo. pp. 353. Price 6s. Longman & Co. London; Anderson, Edinburgh, 1806.

Art. IV. *Eight Letters on the subject of the Earl of Selkirk's Pamphlet on Highland Emigration:* as they lately appeared under the signature of Amicus in one of the Edinburgh newspapers. Svo. pp. 57. Price 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. London. Anderson, Edinburgh.

WHEN Lord Selkirk published his observations on emigration from the Highlands, he knew there were many enemies to his opinions, and probably wished to excite the discussion, which he might naturally anticipate. On a question of so much national importance, it is desirable that the public should not be left merely with *ex parte* evidence, but that every point of the subject should be openly examined. The opponents of Lord S. have, therefore, only to conduct themselves with good faith and good temper, in order to merit the thanks both of the noble author and the country at large. The first of these publications is tolerably fair and argumentative; but the latter, which was published in the form of letters, in eight numbers of the Edinburgh Herald and Chronicle, merely echoes the sentiments of the other, with less force, but more acrimony. Both admit the justice of the praises, which we bestowed on the talents and virtues displayed in the noble Earl's publication (E. R. Vol. II. 274,) and join in acknowledging the truth of his first leading positions. Yet with the inconsistency which determined opposition frequently betrays, each of these writers insinuates, that Lord Selkirk formed the plan of colonising Prince Edward's Island from sinister motives, and promoted its execution by unjustifiable expedients.

The latter writer says,

' His troops were composed of a motley assemblage of ages and sexes. Even these, I am informed, he raised with infinite labour and difficulty; travelling from market to market, supporting hired recruiters, aided by eloquent harangues, and holding out splendid promises, and enchanting prospects. Won by these means, about 800 people were enticed to visit

an expected land of ease and plenty, and to desert the scenes of their youth.' p. 24, 25.

The author of the Remarks affirms, 'that the speculations of Lord Selkirk were certainly written with a keener eye to the improvement of Canada, than the benefit of the mother country or the happiness of its people.' The same censurable spirit is displayed at greater length, when, under the gloss of shewing how the Highland Society might retaliate the reflections of Lord S. upon their measure, he takes the method of shewing how naturally all Lord S.'s. plans may have originated in motives of *prudence*, and corroborates this idea from the personal *emoluments* which, he states, has attended their success.

' It is acknowledged, they might say, that the first idea of the plan which he has since executed was adopted very early in life, and during the course of his academical studies, and confirmed in the course of an extensive tour through the Highlands in the year 1792. The impressions of early life are warm, but they are not on that account the most likely to be correct: the ardent sensibility of youth is too apt to be roused with the rhapsodies of the celebrated classics of antiquity about political happiness, and not a few have traced the errors of maturer age to the unchastised studies of their boyish years. At that time the fourth and youngest son of an ancient and honourable family, condemned by the law of primogeniture to the prospect of a younger brother's portion, without any taste for the military profession, *and no desire to shine in the senate or at the bar*, and perhaps disdaining mercantile pursuits, his Lordship early turned his attention to agriculture. Under such circumstances it was no idle or unmeaning speculation to employ his patrimony in cultivating the fields of America, rather than those of his own country. In Canada, upon application to government, a tract of land fit for cultivation may be obtained for nothing, whereas it would be necessary to make a purchase of land in the United States from some individual, as all the best land there has been already appropriated.

' The succession of the hereditary titles and estates of his family might perhaps have induced the noble author to abandon the plan, to which, when a younger brother, he looked as the source from which the future prospects of his life were to spring: but in some minds a persevering ardour is a prominent feature; and it is no reflection to Lord Selkirk's to suppose it of that description. Lord Selkirk seems to have viewed the acquisition of wealth and consequence only as the means of carrying into execution, with more efficacy the plan he had conceived in early youth. He applied to government therefore, and was enabled to complete his arrangements for his establishment in Upper Canada. Had Lord Selkirk known that he should not be able to carry into effect his original plan of a remote and inland settlement, he plainly intimates that he would have confined his encouragements to the same class of people that formed the wealth of other cultivators of waste ground, or perhaps have abandoned the scheme entirely: But, before he knew that government wished for a maritime settlement, we are informed, that he had

already proceeded far in his preparations*, and the engagements entered into must be fulfilled. A purchase was accordingly made of a large tract of uncultivated ground in Prince Edwards' Island, from the proprietor, at a very easy rate. The emigrants defrayed the expences of the voyage, either by their money or labour; and the land was sold at a very great advance of price. The success of these measures has not disappointed the calculations of prudence; the emolument has been very great without any great outlay of money, and merely by employing some little care and attention. Lord Selkirk still has a considerable quantity of ground uncultivated: he did not procure as many emigrants as would have been sufficient for cultivating his whole property. Additional recruits are required for the colony; but although so many have already transported themselves to it, and although those of their friends, who may chuse to follow their example, have had liberal and earnest invitations, Lord Selkirk will be able to inform the public how these invitations have been listened to. The public must know what would be sufficient to ensure success; it may also be able to conjecture what are the circumstances which must retard its further progress.' pp. 272, 273, 274—276,—279, 280.

All this may serve the purpose of irritation, but contributes nothing to conviction. And when these writers attempt to load the Earl with the odium of exciting, by the arts of a crimp, the spirit of emigration, which, but for him, would have had no existence, they forget, what they had already admitted, and all the world knows to be fact, that this disposition had raged before Lord S. was born. Indeed, not only here, but in the usual strain of these publications, we discover the symptoms, rather of wounded national pride, or endangered interest, than of sincere conviction pleading the cause of truth.

The following strictures we cannot, with propriety, omit.

'Seemingly conscious that the same effects which had attended the breaking up of the feudal system in other countries, should have occurred in the Highlands, Lord Selkirk proceeds to remark, that, 'in one very important circumstance, the ancient state of the Highlands differed remarkably from the rest of the kingdom;—every spot was occupied by nearly as many families as the produce of the land could subsist†.' This must indeed be allowed to be a most singular fact in political œconomy, and it is a solitary instance; for even the great and populous empire of China is found to possess, within its immense compass, vast quantities of waste land which would admit of a greater number of inhabitants than it at present maintains.

'With a vigorous and patriotic government, an industrious and sober people, a mild climate and productive soil, and in a country where agriculture is made a public concern, it might have been expected, that we should find, if we were to meet with it any where, every spot occupied by nearly as many as the produce of the land can subsist. But Lord Selkirk desires us to look for an example of this singular fact to the High-

* P. 5.

† P. 25.

lands of Scotland after the battle of Culloden—to the inhabitants of a country whose manners were lawless, and their chiefs independent, constantly at enmity with each other,—suffering from an unsettled government, the miseries of famine, and the destructive effects of war—with a climate not uncommonly favourable to the productions of nature, and a soil by no means supplying this defect. The observation must be allowed at least to have the attraction of novelty in its favour.

pp. 53, 54

As we are umpires, rather than parties, in this dispute, we chose to insert this passage; for it is the only one in which we have felt convinced that the combatants of Lord S. have the better of the argument. He was evidently drawn into this misstatement by an inadvertent eagerness to establish his favourite positions.

In the following passage the Remarker has fallen into a similar snare.

'We are informed by Lord Selkirk, and it is indeed a well known fact, that the emigrants carry out with them much more money than it could have been conceived possible for persons in their situation to possess. An account is given of one whose capital amounted to 110l. as a specimen of what others in a similar rank, and that not very high, might be possessed of. Many carry out much more with them, even to the extent of 1000l. By far the greater proportion, however, transport along with themselves a great deal less. Suppose, that on an average each person carries out 30l. it will be at once seen, that besides the quantity of productive industry, the nation is also deprived of a very considerable quantity of capital, amply sufficient for putting that industry and much more into motion. In the year 1802, it is known, that 4500 emigrants, independently of the passage money, took with them above 100,000l. in cash*.' pp. 84.

Here it must occur to every reader, that this is not exactly the class which can be expected to enlist as soldiers, and hence Lord S. derives one of his leading arguments. But those, who oppose his undertaking dwell chiefly upon the mischief of depriving our armies of those recruits, at a time when the country has peculiar need of their services.

It is frequently asserted in the works under review, that many means might be found to employ the Highlanders who are thrown out of their little farms. But when bare possibilities only are mentioned, and nothing determinate is specified which affords an immediate and adequate resource, the question is not met, but evaded. Did we conceive that his Lordship maintained the necessity of emigration from generation to generation, and that no means should be attempted to obviate the evil in future, we should be the last to undertake his defence. But he con-

* App. C. to Third Rep. on Coasts, &c. of Scotland.

tends only that there is now a peculiar class of the Highland population, for which no resource opens to our view, but that of removing them to some yet unsettled country, where they may not be wholly lost to the parent isle. Far from being hostile to every other means of employing the moveable force, he himself points out several. ‘ Every friend to his country, says Lord S., would rejoice if the Highland proprietors could find the means of obviating the local depopulation of their district, by the introduction of suitable branches of productive industry.’ ‘ Among these the most promising is the cultivation of waste land. Some attempts have been made in the Highlands to turn the superfluous population to this branch of industry. The success with which they have been attended is sufficient to encourage further experiments.’ He also earnestly recommends attention to our fisheries, which have been well denominated ‘ a mine under water.’

That he did not himself recur to any of these preventatives to emigration, arises from his considering them as calculated to operate only at a distant futurity, and cannot be imputed to him as a crime, unless it is criminal to act upon our own views rather than those of our opponents. It is for the Highland Society, and those who coincide with them, to reduce to practice their own principles, which, if they prove well founded, will take away the power, and we should hope the inclination, of others, to succeed in schemes of emigration.

What answer Lord S. will give to pp. 340—342 we know not.

When the author of the Remarks, diverts from the controversial object of his book, he discourses well on the rural and political economy of the kingdom; discovers a mind not uninformed on this most interesting subject; and suggests hints which demand attention. But in an answer to Lord S. much of this seems misplaced; for whence has it appeared, that the Earl opposes these sentiments? Indeed the alteration of the title, and the suppression of much controversial and personal reflection, would render the book valuable as a source of general information concerning the Highlands. If it must, however, be considered as a reply, it is prelix, desultory, and irrelevant.

Of the Eight Letters, we are informed, a new edition is just published, price 2s. 6d. with large additions.

Art. V. The *Life of Thomas Dermody*, interspersed with pieces of original Poetry, many exhibiting unexampled prematurity of genuine poetical talent, and containing a series of Correspondence with several eminent characters. By James Grant Raymond. In 2 vols. small 8vo. pp. 258,346. Price 10s. Miller, 1806.

If we were to try this work as a literary performance, we should pass sentence on it in very few words. We should pronounce

it guilty of mediocrity, and condemn it to die—a natural death; for its chief merit is, that there is little to blame, and its principal defect that there is little to praise in it. But were we to judge it according to the interest excited by its hero while living, and the curiosity which has been awakened concerning him since his death, we should not find room, within our limits, for the expression of our wonder at his early powers, sympathy for his strange sufferings, and abhorrence of his dreadful depravity. For not less distinguished by his talents and misfortunes, than by his follies and vices, was Thomas Dermody, who at the age of ten years was admired as a prodigy of wit and learning, yet died at eight and twenty, reprobated and abandoned by his patrons, as an irreclaimable slave of intemperance and ingratitude. These are hard words; but they are the truth;—they are these two volumes in one sentence. On the grave of a youth beloved of the muses, who perished in want, we shed the tears of compassion;—on the grave of a sinner, whose life of iniquity is thus blazoned before the world by the most constant of his friends, we tremble to tread; and while we pause in imagination over the place where his ashes are at rest, with the earnestness of agony we exclaim, ‘ May his soul have found peace ! ’ We presume not to judge this nurseling of genius, and victim of indiscretion: he is gone whither human praise and human censure cannot follow him, but whither we must follow him shortly, not as his advocates or accusers, but to *answer for ourselves*, and for the employment of the talents committed to *our charge*. Had the glory or the shame of the Departed alone been in question, we should have passed by his monument in silence and sadness, leaving to TIME, at his leisure, either to crumble it into dust, or to build it up into immortality. But since indolence, self-will, and sensuality, the tempters that deceived, and the daemons that destroyed, poor Dermody, are most frequently the besetting sins of youthful poets, we shall exhibit his life unhappy as it was, and his memory dishonoured as it is, for their warning and instruction: the lesson, though peculiarly interesting to them, may be profitable to all who consider it.

Thomas Dermody was born at Ennis, in the county of Clare, in Ireland, on the 17th of January 1775. His father, Nicholas Dermody, was a Schoolmaster, who instructed him, from his cradle, in the Greek and Latin languages, apparently with no higher view than to make him useful as an assistant in the school, for at nine years of age we find little Thomas acting in that capacity. But to this early acquaintance with the bards of antiquity,—for Homer and Horace were the companions, the *playmates* of his childhood—we may attribute his being so prematurely smitten with the passion for poetry: though we rather think that he was inoculated, than that he took the infection

himself; for in all his pieces, that we have seen, from the dawn to the sunset of his career, though there is a rich luxuriance of imitation, we find a poverty of invention, unworthy of the noble improvidence of an original Genius, lavishing with unbounded prodigality the native treasures of an exuberant imagination. Hence we apprehend, that Dermody was a Poet more instructed than inspired, and that if he had not heard the voice of song till a later period, his poems at sixteen would not have surpassed those which he really wrote at ten; yet that from twenty to twenty-eight, his pieces, on this supposition, would have equalled the actual productions of that interval. We judge thus because we observe no climax in the succession of his works: his poems at ten years shame those at sixteen, and disgrace those at eight and twenty: in relation to each other, the first are giant promises, the second manly attempts, the third pigmy performances. The former, admirable as they undoubtedly are, manifest rather a *pre-maturity* than a *pre-eminence* of talent,—the ordinary excellency of a riper age, rather than the rare exhibition of powers, superior in kind, yet suited in measure to his tender years; for they have neither the charms nor the faults of children's verses;—charms and faults indeed they have, but they are those of a *later age*, not of a *higher order*. His numerous works, as he advanced in life, countenance the hypothesis, singular as it may seem, that his genius was only of the middle size, but, under peculiar circumstances, forced, as it were in a hot-bed, into such rapid growth, that it had attained in ten years the standard, which, with common advantages, it would hardly have exceeded in eighteen: and it is remarkable that his juvenile improvement was almost imperceptibly gradual, but when his years had reached maturity, his mind seems to have lost its powers of expansion, and to have reached, without being able to break, the barriers of impassable mediocrity. His familiarity, even in infancy, with the great poets, not only of Greece and Rome, but of his *native country* also, made verse, if not the *first*, the *principal form* in which he learned the exercise of speech and thought; consequently the *language of poetry* became, if we may use the phrase, his *mother tongue*; and more from example than choice, from obedience than love, at an age when children are merely docile and imitative,

' He lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came.'

It is true, that Mr. Raymond does not tell us this (for he says not a word about Dermody's early *English* reading, though it must have been very considerable,) yet we gather it from accidental hints scattered through these volumes: indeed every grain of knowledge they contain, concerning the progress of this extraordinary youth's mind, must be winnowed from bushels of

chaff. But if there were no other authority for this presumption, the first poem which Mr. Raymond has quoted would justify it; for it proves that Dermody had long been a versifier. Let the reader judge from the following extract from *Corydon*.

A shepherd swain like me, of harmless guise,
 Whose sole amusement was to feed his kine,
 And tune his oaten pipe the livelong day,—
Could he in aught offend th' avenging skies,
 Or wake the red-wing'd thunderbolt divine?
 Ah! no: of simple structure was his lay;
 Yet unprofan'd with trick of city art,
 Pure from the head, and glowing from the heart.—
 Thou dear memorial of a brother's love,
 Sweet flute, once warbled to the list'ning grove,
 And master'd by his skilful hand,
 How shall I now command
 The hidden charms that lurk within thy frame,
 Or tell his gentle fame?
 Yet will I hail, unmeet, his star-crown'd shade;
 And beck his rural friends, a tuneful throng,
 To mend the uncouth lay, and join the rising song.
 Ah! I remember well yon oaken arbour gay,
 Where frequent at the purple dawn of morn,
 Or 'neath the beetling brow of twilight grey,
 We sate, like roses twain upon one thorn,
 Telling romantic tales, of descent quaint,
 Tinted in various hues with fancy's paint:
 And I would hearken, greedy of his sound,
 Lapt in the bosom of soft ecstacy,
 Till, lifting mildly high
 Her modest frontlet from the clouds around,
 Silence beheld us bruise the closing flow'rs,
 Meanwhile she shed her pure ambrosial show'rs.

Vol. I. pp. 5, 7.

Who would imagine this to be the artless but passionate language of a *babe* of genius? or rather who *would not* imagine it to be the painful labour of an ingenuous youth to imitate the style and manner of our elder poets of the seventeenth century, and especially the *Lycidas* of Milton. If the latter be granted, our point is established, that the talents of Dermody were more *prematur* than *pre-eminent*.—We proceed to his biography.

Mr. Raymond informs us that the father of Dermody, 'from whatever cause, grew uneasy in his mind, and flew for temporary relief to the bottle;' and afterwards that the son "fatally (as it proved) accustomed himself to mix with the vulgar and dissipated characters, with whom his father's unhappy propensity led him to associate." There are parents who deserve the curses of their children, though perhaps children ought never to utter

them. The father of Dermody was one of these; for though he saw the ruin of his family involved in his own intemperance, he had not the virtue to refrain; but still "pursued his pleasures, and heard even the reproaches of his children with indifference and apathy." Every step of the son's miserable life may have been influenced by the father's misleading: every sin of that son recorded in these volumes is a stone cast at the memory of that father. From such a guide, rather from such a betrayer, the child might well run away. Towards the end of 1785, he set out secretly for Dublin, "with two shillings, the second volume of Tom Jones, (*which he has often said determined him on this adventure*) and a single change of linen in his pocket." Both the shillings he gave away to a poor old woman, whom he found in a wretched hovel by the way, mourning over the corpse of her daughter, whose five orphan children were crying around her. This is almost the only anecdote of Dermody that we have read with pleasure. We cannot relate the other adventures of his journey, though rendered sufficiently romantic by his being benighted in a ruined abbey, meeting a merry parish clerk, and being assisted on his way by a benevolent Irish carrier. On his arrival in Dublin, (a distance of 140 miles from his native village,) though his fond imagination had painted it "the emporium of felicity," he was saved from perishing in the streets by a kind-hearted bookseller, who seeing a country lad earnestly poring over a Greek author, at his stall, emerged from his cellar to secure his property. Astonished at the boy's learning, and pitying his forlorn condition, he engaged him to teach his son Latin; but either the master or the scholar was too stupid for the task, and Dermody entered into the service of another bookseller, whom also he soon deserted. In the beginning of the following year, 1786, Dr. Houlton, finding him one day, in mean apparel, reading Longinus in the original Greek, at a bookseller's shop, was so pleased, on further examination, with his proficiency in that language, that he took him home, and provided for him while he himself remained in Dublin, which seems to have been a few weeks only. Dermody shewed the Doctor many of his little poems and translations, which greatly increased the interest he had felt in the boy's welfare, from the first moment of his acquaintance with him. Doctor Houlton's narration, here introduced, is very entertaining. Dermody's knowledge of Horace, his favourite Latin author, was put to the test by Mr. French, a friend of Dr. Houlton's, who in his first interview with him requested a version of the eleventh ode of the first book, to which he had accidentally opened. In nine minutes the boy produced a very fair translation of it in verse, fifteen lines in length. In his answer to Mr. French's questions on the subject of this translation, he displayed considerable critical reading and obser-

vation. Some time afterwards finding among some old books, copy of Anacreon, an author whom he had never before seen, he sat down instantly to read it. Nothing could divert his attention till he had gone through the work; and in the course of a few days, he made poetical translations of all the pieces in the first book. But his mind, restless after novelty, and impatient of controul, soon grew weary of his patron's kindness, and the Doctor's business calling him into the country, he set the little captive at liberty, and furnished him with as much money as he could spare, and the best advice he could give him concerning his future conduct. Dermody quitted him without regret, for he scarcely felt a pang at parting with any friend, in a world, where he never found a greater enemy than himself; and being now in the hands of that enemy, after a few more days he had wasted all Doctor Houlton's donation, ‘distress and poverty assailed him; without a settled home he roved about the streets by day, and begged the meanest shelter during the night.’ From this misery he was relieved by a poor scene-painter, who introduced him to Mr. Owenson, of the Theatre, in whom he found a zealous and unalienable friend. Mr. Owenson took him to his house and associated him with his children; he trumpeted forth his merits and sufferings in every company, and determined to procure this fondling of genius an introduction to the college.

The account of Dermody's introduction to Dr. Young, professor of natural Philosophy at the University of Dublin, and afterwards Bishop of Clonfert, is curious and interesting. Many similar stories are introduced; and it is easy to conceive how much surprize must be excited by such active talents in childhood. Mr. Owenson's plan fully succeeded. Dr. Young with the utmost kindness agreed to superintend the studies of his new favourite, and to complete him for college.

‘The prospect,’ says Mr. Raymond, ‘was flattering to Dermody, but unfortunately the studies which he now entered on with Dr. Young, were suited neither to his genius nor his disposition.’ What these studies were we are not told, but they could not be very dissimilar from those, to which he had been accustomed from his infancy: yet “with tears he would lament the mental drudgery into which he had been thrown, and the loss of those caresses which he once enjoyed in the arms of the Muses.” The truth is evident: Dermody could not endure restraint of any kind; and it is probable from his uniform abhorrence of all regular study, manifested on many occasions, that his father had used extreme severity in qualifying him for a classical usher at nine years of age. His aversion to Dr. Young's lessons soon grew so great that he absented himself from them, without giving the least intimation of his design to either of his friends. They were consequently much displeased at his perverseness; but Mr.

Owenson quickly recommended him to a more durable situation. The Rev. Gilbert Austin, who kept a school of high reputation in Dublin, took Dermody under his protection, introduced him to his friends, and issued proposals for publishing by subscription a selection of his poems. For a time Dermody seemed to attach himself to his books, and his conduct was decorous. He had the opportunity of forming connections among the sons of some of the first families in Ireland, of improving his manners in elegant society, and cultivating his talents under an able and friendly preceptor. The story of his learning and his distresses had awakened so much compassion, that at one time Mr. Austin placed 150*l.* in the bank, for the use of his pupil, whose poems were eagerly expected from the press. But this eccentric boy, who had been made a prodigy in Greek by the precepts of his father, seems to have been converted into a brute of sensuality by his example: for while he was courted by the good and the great, he slunk from their invitations to wallow in the styes of drunkenness and profligacy. By one of his hardened associates he was induced to attempt a shameful imposition on the common sense of Mr. Austin, who detected him in a lie, and as a punishment sent him from the parlour to be an inmate of the kitchen. Not being immediately recalled from this banishment, in which it does not appear that he either shewed penitence, or made concession, he gave vent to his rage, and "wrote *four lines*, in "which the families of his patron and patroness were severely "and humourously satirized." Mr. Raymond says that it was not the wish of Dermody that these lines should ever be seen;—why then were they not destroyed? By some person they were found in his room among other scraps of rhyme, and carried to Mr. Austin, who was so provoked by this ungrateful return for his kindness, "that he destroyed the poems he had collected for publication, returned to the subscribers the whole of the money "he had received for the boy's support and education, shut his "doors against him, and turned him once more upon the world "friendless and forsaken." If his crime was only "in a moment of passion, writing *four mirthful lines* against his benefactor," as Mr. Raymond would wish us to believe, Mr. Austin's anger was ridiculous, and his vengeance unjust; but this Mr. Raymond has not ventured to affirm. The consequences prove that the offence was very aggravated, for in the whole circle of Mr. Austin's connections the boy's conduct was deliberately condemned, and his character ruined beyond recovery.

In this dilemma the wretched outcast first tried a plan of raising temporary supplies of money, which he often practised afterwards with various success; he wrote letters to men of rank, fortune, or literary eminence, flattering their vanity, stating his misfortunes, and imploring their bounty. Considering the uncontrollable

independence of mind, that made him rebel against all individual authority exercised over him, by masters or patrons, it might seem strange that he could thus prostrate his proud spirit at the feet of arrogant greatness, and expose himself to be spurned away with a rudeness, that was only less humiliating than the reluctant relief that he sometimes obtained. But there are many strange paradoxes in human nature; and we know that the basest and most pliant servility is consistent with the most refractory stubbornness of heart.

His good friend Mr. Owenson, who had been absent at the time of his disgrace, on his return to Dublin, administered to his wants with unabated kindness, and through the means of Mr. Berwick, procured him the patronage of the present Countess Dowager of Moira. This noble-minded Lady immediately placed him under the tuition of the Rev. Hugh Boyd, of Killeagh, the translator of Dante. In this retirement Dermody reluctantly remained two years; for though he at first acted with diligence and propriety, in the end he abandoned himself to drunkenness and riot, among a crew of wretches with whom he associated at a neighbouring ale-house, whose follies and frenzies he has celebrated in rhymes, which have no merit, except that, bad as they are, they are too good for the subject. The poetical garlands, which he wove for his patroness, would be more particularly pleasing, if we could forget, that every thing like gratitude in Dermody, appears to have been the despicable homage of mercenary adulation. Among these the most distinguished is a Dramatic Pastoral, '*The triumph of Gratitude*', of which the characters and sentiments, the stricture of the language and the modulation of the verse, are closely imitated from Milton's *Comus*. For example:

‘ Such minstrelsy
Would ill befit belated revel rout;
Or wassail wild, with vice unholy knit
In fell alliance.’

But the master-lay of Dermody’s muse is unquestionably the little poem entitled ‘*Elegiac Stanzas*’ on himself, written during his residence at Killeagh, when he was about sixteen years old. In these affecting lines, the tender yet brilliant simplicity of thought and expression, that sheds a charm as soft as twilight on ‘fair Fidele’s grassy tomb’ in the Dirge of Collins, casts a gleam of glory on the grave of poor Dermody, which will linger late and long upon it.—

It was impossible always to conceal the faults and irregularities of Dermody from his beneficent patroness, who frequently condescended to remonstrate with him in the gentlest terms on the impropriety and probable consequences of his bad be-

haviour. Dermody vindicated himself with unbecoming petulance, and persevered both in his errors and his murmurings; till—finding him utterly untractable, and impatient to ruin himself, in his own way, by going to London to display in England those talents which he now thought Ireland unworthy—Lady Moira set him at liberty from her protection. Overjoyed at his emancipation, the infatuated boy once more went to Dublin, a friendless adventurer. He had scarcely arrived in the city, when he found himself without a penny, and took to his old beggarly trade of writing letters to rich men. Among others he attracted the notice of Messrs. Flood and Grattan, at that time the glory of the Irish Parliament. Mr. Raymond has preserved a sketch by the former, of a plan for a political poem, on the British Constitution. It is a curious document, but a fitter theme for a Senator than for a Poet.

But among Dermody's Irish patrons, none endeavoured with more zeal, or less success, to serve him substantially, than the late lamented Lord Kilwarden, then Attorney-general. From him the obstinate youth deigned to accept temporary relief; but when he found that his patron 'had actually engaged apartments for him in the college, and promised to furnish them in a commodious manner, defraying the whole of his expences there, and allow him thirty pounds a year in order that he might appear in the world with comfort and respectability'—his independent spirit (*his stubborn indolence*) revolted from the yoke, and 'he chose rather to continue in mean obscurity, than to accept the liberal proposal of his benefactor.' About this time it appears that he became acquainted with his present biographer, whose kindness he had frequently afterwards occasion to solicit, and opportunity to abuse. Meanwhile Dermody lived on the precarious charity of his friends, and the extorted gifts of those to whom he had addressed his fawning petitions. Occasionally he scribbled for the news-papers, and once published an outrageous pamphlet on the French Revolution, in which we find the following passage:

'Had Voltaire and Rousseau lived to this grand epoch, they would have died contented; to see the Rights of Man vindicated; to see their *pen* followed by the *sword*, would have been a foretaste of heaven!'

But finding this side of the question unprofitable, he recanted his error and to flatter Mr. Smith, who had espoused contrary principles, he thus speaks, in a poem addressed to that gentleman, of the effects of *that sword*, which followed *those pens*:

'Where, by Barbarians slaughter'd, Justice lay,
And the loud rabble claim'd unhallow'd sway;
* * * * *

While o'er the blood-stained base of public woes,
Pillar'd on death, the *Grand Republic* rose!

With a mind so devoted to prostitution, it was not wonderful that his habits and his associates, at this time, were of the base order. Twice was he forced to try his fortune in the King's service, and was twice handed over to the tender in the Bay; but afterwards released by private liberality: at length he entered as a private soldier, in the 108th Regiment. Military discipline seems to have been the most wholesome regimen under which he ever existed; for he was progressively made a corporal and serjeant for his *good behaviour*. In his nineteenth year he went with the regiment to England, where he had the good fortune to be placed under the immediate command of the Earl of Moira, who appointed him to a sub-lieutenancy in the waggon corps. He afterwards served in Flanders, and was present at many of the principal actions of the unfortunate campaign in 1794. In this service, he received several severe but honourable wounds. On the reduction of the army, Dermody was put on the half-pay-list, when, again falling under his own most tyrannical government, he rushed back into his former excesses, and the few remaining years of his life, while he resided in London, were devoted to self-destruction. Lord Moira continued to countenance him, till his interference was no longer bounty but madness.

The following stanza, from an 'Ode to Frenzy' written at this time, will shew that he had made little improvement in poetry since his sixteenth year, (he was now twenty-four), and will also exhibit in a very terrible light the feelings most familiar to his despairing heart.

'The hurried step, the pregnant pause severe,
The spectred flash of sense, the hideous smile,
The frozen stare, revenge's thrilling tear,
The awful start, sharp look, and mischief's secret will;
These are the proud demoniac marks I claim,
Since grief and feeling are the same;
Then all thy racks sublime prepare,
And shield me, Frenzy, from Despair.'

The frantic ode, from which this stanza is copied, was sent in a time of extreme misery to Mr. Raymend, who immediately hastened to relieve the unfortunate bard. Mr. R. had not seen him before during fourteen years: his appearance is thus described:— 'Those youthful features which only a few years before were pleasing, attractive, and intelligent; in which were to be traced the sparks of intellectual greatness; were now totally changed. A settled melancholy had taken possession of his mind; and his care-worn pallid countenance, disfigured

by a wound which he had received in an action; added to the meanness of his garments, for he was almost naked; exhibited him as in reality a picture of despair.' By Mr. R.'s assistance he was soon afterwards enabled to sell a collection of his poems to considerable advantage, and the public received them favourably.'

We are too deeply interested in the poet's own sad story, now drawing near to its tragical conclusion, to stop here to criticise those specimens which Mr. R. has exhibited as proofs of the superiority of Dermody's talents, but which, in our opinion, only evidence their inveterate mediocrity; for they abound with imitation, and continually remind us that we are not reading Pope and Goldsmith, though the author seldom permits either to be long out of our sight. These pieces, however, happening to procure him a supply of money and friends, he took care to dissipate both with all possible expedition; and soon finding himself without either, he revived his Irish plan of levying contributions on the wealthy and the great. Sir James Bland Burgess, author of a heroic poem, called 'Richard the First' was at that time one of his most bountiful patrons. Mr. Addington, (now Lord Sidmouth) then Chancellor of the Exchequer, also munificently rewarded him for the exercise of his powers on several occasions. From the 'Literary Fund,' he likewise received several sums of money: but all the gifts of all his benefactors were only drops of water to that unquenchable thirst, which consumed his vitals, in proportion as he endeavoured to allay it by desperate inebriety.

Yet were the energies of his mind not extinguished, but maddened, by his sufferings and excesses. Mr. Raymond assures us, that his 'Battle of the Bards,' a heroï-comic poem in two cantos, on the celebrated rencontre between Peter Pindar and Mr. Gifford, was produced in one day: if we admit Mr. R.'s testimony to be correct, 'The Battle of the Bards' was indeed a wonderfully hasty production; and it certainly exhibits as much of the humour of Martinus Scriblerus, as well could be diffused over so large a space in so short a time. By the liberality of Mr. Addington, Dermody now found means to publish a second volume of poems, from which, however, he derived little benefit. From these pieces Mr. Raymond gives sundry extracts, which only confirm our judgement that Dermody's talents could not raise his conceptions beyond that point, below which all poetry is mortal. Mr. R. of course, as the friend, the patron, and the biographer of Dermody, is enraptured with every thing he writes; he quotes the following passage from this volume, as a fine portrait of *Danger.*

' High o'er the headlong torrents foaming fall,
Whose waters *howl* along the rugged steep,

On the loose-jutting rock, or mouldering wall,
 See where ghaunt Danger lays him down to sleep!
 The piping winds his mournful vigil keep,
 The lightnings blue his stony pillow warm;
 Anon, incumbent o'er the dreary deep,
 The fiend enormous strides the labouring storm,
 And 'mid the thunderous strife expands his giant form.'

This is indeed *expanding the giant form of Danger*, with vengeance: need we introduce the original, which is only a pigmy in comparison?

' Danger, whose limbs of giant-mould,
 What mortal age can fix'd behold?
 Who stalks his round, an hideous form!
 Howling amidst the midnight storm,
 Or throws him on the ridgy steep
 Of some loose hanging rock to sleep.'

Collins's Ode to Fear.

We remember to have seen another description of the same subject, by a living author, whose imitations are equally palpable.

Dermody's poverty and his disorder (a rapid decline) had now reduced both his frame and his spirits very low. Every day, as he approached the last, brought with it new wants, and new sorrows. In the beginning of July 1802, with the last strength of an emaciated body, and a broken mind, he fled from his persecuting creditors in London, and took shelter in a miserable cottage, near Sydenham, in Kent. In this den of despair he was found by Mr. Raymond and another gentleman, on the 15th of the same month, perishing for want of every common necessary of life. What relief could be immediately procured, was administered to him. His friends then engaged comfortable lodgings for him in the neighbourhood, and took their leave, promising to return and remove him in the morning. Dermody died that night.

Concerning the talents of this extraordinary youth, we have delivered our opinion already; his principal misfortunes have been recorded in the foregoing memoir: it only remains for us to point out some of the particular circumstances that operated to form his character, and aggravate his calamities. We consider his early life to have been attended with nearly every event that could nourish and strengthen the evil propensities of nature, while it was precisely deprived of every countervailing advantage. We cannot doubt that his premature attainments had raised him to a dangerous degree of self complacency; and the severity (as we apprehend) of his education, together with a conceited satisfaction in the extent of his acquisitions, would

strongly indispose him for any serious or permanent pursuit. His indolence would induce him to hope, and his vanity would lead him to expect, the sinecure patronage of the great and wealthy; and he doubtless depended on becoming the highly valued Horace of some indulgent Mecænas.

This is a very common and a very dangerous error among young poets. That Dermody's expectations were thus extravagantly romantic, may be inferred from his pertinaciously rejecting all plans for his gradual advancement in life. And this conjecture is confirmed by a passage in one of Dermody's letters to the Countess of Moira, in which he tells her plainly how easy it would be for her ladyship, out of her great possessions, to spare him a portion that would place him at once beyond the reach of want, and the precariousness of dependence. Other subordinate circumstances might be mentioned as materially contributing their injurious influence on the character of Dermody. Studies exclusively classical, uncorrected by religious instruction—an education destitute of all moral discipline, domestic order, and filial respect—are particulars too important to be overlooked. But these shrink from observation, when compared with that dreadful source of guilt and misfortune, an early love and habit of drunkenness. This, and the execrable rabble among whom it involved the unhappy Dermody, were sufficient to foster into rankness every tendency to evil. It would be more easy than pleasant to trace their various operations: the effect was but too evident, in a character sottishly indolent, self-conceited, and invincibly stubborn; lost to all moral principle, and even to that pride which desires to obtain respect, though it may not endeavour to deserve it; deaf to all the suggestions of prudence and friendship, and callous to every feeling of shame, ambition, or gratitude.

One circumstance we should observe, which tended to debase and harden the mind of Dermody, was the deplorable condition of dirty and half-naked poverty, in which, on his first appearance in Dublin, he was ostentatiously exhibited in the palaces of the great, as a spectacle of suffering and a prodigy of learning. In stifling the confusion which he must have felt at first, on these mortifying occasions, he subdued the ingenuous modesty of nature into shameless effrontery; and discerning, young as he was, that he was frequently indebted for bounty, more to compassion than to admiration, (for those could feel who could not understand Greek) he took advantage of that weakness in human nature, and to the last hour of his life raised more money by his rags than by his rhymes, and found his wretchedness a better patrimony than his talents.—

It is painful to think that eminent talents should have been so dreadfully perverted; and that a mind so soon rendered rich

and prolific, should become the polluted receptacle of all that is hateful and impure.

When we see with what early luxuriance the germs of learning and of vice, planted together in infancy, by one unfeigned hand, sprang up in his mind, till the thorns of the latter overshadowed and choaked the shoots of the former; we cannot help deeply lamenting, that the seeds of religion were not sown, with those of knowledge, in that exuberant soil, where they might have risen and flourished together, like trees in the paradise of God, in grandeur and beauty supporting and adorning each other, yielding shelter and shade with their intermingling branches, and producing in their season, the flowers of genius and the fruits of holiness.

Art. VI. *A Vindication of the Principles and Statements advanced in the Strictures of the Right Hon. Lord Sheffield; on the Necessity of inviolably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great Britain, with Tables and an Appendix.* By the Rev. Jerome Alley, L.L.B. M. R. I. A. 8vo. pp. 90. Price 2s. 6d. Symonds, 1800.

THE subject of this pamphlet is certainly of momentous importance to the welfare of our country; we shall therefore enter into a more particular detail of its scope and tendency than its size might seem to demand, and enable the author, in the following extract, to describe its plan.

' In the first part of this work, I have confined myself, principally, to the more particular branches of the subject, the effects produced on the shipping interests of England by the late suspending acts; the injurious competitions which were excited between the British and the foreign ship builder: the consequent decline of British navigation, and the transfer in several instances, of the carrying trade of England to foreign powers. In the second part the view has been extended; the right of England to frame laws for the regulation of her commerce, which has been denied; the causes of the late increase of the exports and imports of England, which have been misrepresented; the policy of reserving to English merchants the exclusive supply of the British West Indies, which has been denied, have received a distinct and cautious discussion; and it has been shewn by the testimony of comparative statements, and admitted facts, that the navigation and colonial regulations of this country are eminently conducive to the permanence and prosperity of English commerce; and that, even if they were found to restrict the imports and exports of the nation, they are yet the foundation of our naval pre-eminence, and should therefore be consistently and inviolably maintained.'

As the champion of Lord Sheffield, Mr. A. treats those who have held different opinions from his Lordship, with considerable asperity of remark; ignorant, illiberal, malevolent, contemptible, are among the epithets which he lavishes (apparently with rea-

son) on his opponents. We are sorry to see our author demean himself, by imitating the temper of which he complains. The occasion may be said to have provoked retort, but is it necessary to return abuse upon an impotent or contemptible opponent? Is it not perfectly easy to prove a man to be a scoundrel, without calling him so?

Mr. A. enters upon his subject by stating, that in consequence of several acts of the British Legislature since the year 1794, the navigation and colonial system of England has been violated by relaxations and suspensions of a very decisive nature—omitting to give his readers any information respecting the system itself. We think this a material defect in the discussion, as the uninformed reader is left to collect, as he can, what the spirit of that system has been, from the evils introduced by its suspension. For although it may be known in a superficial way to most mercantile men, yet we will venture to observe, that, in general, they know it only in the regulations that affect their individual branches of commerce. We will endeavour to supply this defect, by a brief recapitulation of its principal features and provisions.—

This system is, in fact, a series of restrictions and prohibitions, tending to establish a monopoly. Viewing the self-preservation of a people as a paramount duty, our ancestors considered the defence of this island from foreign invasion, as the first law of national policy, and consequently made every effort to create and support a maritime power. Wishing that the merchants should own as many ships, and employ as many *native* mariners, as possible, restrictions and prohibitions were devised, to induce, and even compel them, to such an application of their capital. The partial interests of commerce were thus frequently sacrificed, trade being then considered principally as the means of employing ships, and thus of conducing to the grand object, the *naval strength of the country*. The wisdom of the plan is best evidenced in its effects: and these the present pamphlet tends to elucidate. It may be truly stated, that the increase of our trade and naval strength has kept pace with that of our shipping and navigation.

The first grand scheme for encouraging our marine, was brought forward by the celebrated act of navigation, passed by the Long Parliament Oct. the 9th 1651, and since modified by the 12th Car. II. c. 18. This statute may be divided into nearly 30 rules for regulating shipping, of which we shall only name a few of the most important, viz.—That no goods be imported or exported between the mother countries and the colonies, but in *British built ships*, owned by *British subjects*, and navigated by a master, and at least three-fourths of the mariners *British subjects*.—That no growth of the colonies be transported

any where but to Britain, or some other British plantation.—That no goods be imported into the colonies, but such as are shipped in Great Britain.—That no power may trade from port to port in Great Britain or Ireland, but in a *British* built or *British* owned vessel, and three-fourths of the mariners *British* subjects.

The stat. 33d Geo. III. c. 68, contains several regulations calculated to enforce the provisions of the navigation acts, defining British seamen to be either natural born subjects, persons naturalized by act of parliament, or made denizens by letters patent, having become subjects by conquest, or cession of some newly acquired country; and having taken the oath of allegiance, or other oath required on such conquest or cession. Foreign seamen, however, having serv'd three years in our navy in time of war, may be employed as British seamen, not having taken the oath of allegiance to a foreign state. This statute also contains further regulations as to the registry of British ships, and the employment of negroes in the West Indies, &c.

It is this system which our author contends has been violated by several acts of the British legislature, since the year 1794.

'These measures,' adds he, 'in the opinion of the noble author of the strictures, were impolitic and mischievous in their tendency; but it is asserted on the contrary, by the opponents of that work, that they were highly serviceable to the British merchant and to British shipping, and that, so far from being violations of the navigation laws, they contribute to support and improve the whole system. Now, it will be thought evident by reasonable men, that the acts alluded to could have been passed for no purpose, but absolutely to abrogate for a season, the leading principles of that system; they could not have been framed to support what had been previously established, but to suspend what had been previously established, in favour of new measures and new views; they were found accordingly to annul, for a specific period, all the restrictions by which British shipping had been encouraged, in preference to neutral bottoms, and to authorize and invite the exportation of goods of any kind in foreign vessels, which were neither duly navigated, nor duly built. Of these regulations and principles, it is scarcely necessary to say, that they were in direct hostility to the whole code. They permitted what that system forbade. They suspended, counteracted, annihilated restrictions, which that system was formed to ratify and maintain; and they conferred privileges on foreigners equal (and in some respects superior) to those, which had been exclusively reserved by the same code, for the encouragement of British shipping and commerce. Yet all this, it is said, was but to support and improve the navigation system.'

These innovations left the competition open to foreign built ships, and enabled their advantages to operate in such a degree, that through the high price of provisions, the weight of taxes, the rise in ship's provisions and stores, it was admitted that a foreign built vessel might be sold, *ceteris paribus*, at a much

cheaper rate than a British. Mr. A. then gives a table of imports from and exports to the United States or British colonies in America, for three years, ending the 5th Jan. 1801, the 5th Jan. 1793, and the 5th Jan. 1775. He then remarks :

' That it is no common and casual decline of a most valuable trade, which is stated and proved, and no doubtful cause which has produced the effect. Were the navigation laws maintained, as they were in two of the periods specified in the table ? The trade *proportionally* flourished. Were they relaxed and renounced, as was the case in the third period adverted to ? The trade *proportionally* declined. In the year 1772, for instance, when our old maritime principles were respected, the number of inward bound British vessels trading to the American continent, appears to have amounted to 814, including a tonnage of 102,310 tons, and the number outward bound, to 843, including a tonnage of 102,501 tons ; in the year 1798, when our old principles were renounced, the inward bound British vessels did not exceed 178, containing 28,322 tons, and the outward did not exceed 289, containing 43,815 tons. Thus, under the acts of suspension, the shipping and tonnage of England employed, inward and outward, in one branch of trade, in the year 1798, were less than those employed in the year 1772, to the amount of 132,674 tons, and of 1190 vessels, and this depression will be considered as of yet more serious mischief when traced through all its bearings and effects.' But, Mr. A. justly remarks—' It is not a carrying-trade alone that is lost ; it is not a little and paltry gain, resulting from a disconnected and partial pursuit that is sacrificed : it is the industry of the naval mechanic that is deadened ; it is the shipwright and the countless artizans who depend upon him for support, that are robbed of employment ; it is the number of sailors that are directly lost to the nation by dispersion, and ultimately lost by the diminished employment of British vessels, or, in other words, by the diminished means of education and maintenance ; it is the ruin of all the arts, manufactures, and trade, which flourish and expire, according as the demand for shipping advances or declines : these are the mischiefs which should occupy the consideration of the statesman, and which, to a maritime nation, depending for every thing that is of national value on its maritime strength, are of the most awful and alarming import.'

The second part of the pamphlet opens with a view of the motives, and absurdities, of some late doctrines on the subject of suspension, which are certainly pointed out in a very clear and satisfactory manner.

' With these general doctrines,' continues our author, ' are mingled others of a nature not less idle, but far more culpable. The navigation system itself is decryed, in the whine of affected lamentation, as abrogating natural rights, prohibiting the exercise of natural powers, and preventing the enjoyment of natural benefits ; and it is maintained, for an obvious purpose, that Britain possesses ' no unqualified right to regulate her commerce with other countries, because there are more parties than one to the execution of her regulations, and without reciprocity there is no right.' On the first of these doctrines I make no comment : if it was

designed to hold up the maritime and colonial code of this country, public disgust and abhorrence, it is criminal; if it was not so designed is puerile, foolish, and absurd. But of the right of commercial regulation, appertaining to every kingdom, I shall say, without fear of contradiction, that it is undeniable in the theory, and universal in the practice. All nations have adopted commercial restrictions and prohibitions: all nations, except such as were controlled by superior powers, have thought themselves authorized to close or open their ports, in whatever manner their individual interest might require. What independent people would listen to us, except with contempt, if we told them 'they were not the sole party to the execution of their commercial regulations;' and that 'we also had rights in their commerce,' which ought to be respected, and may therefore justly be enforced? What free people would not smile, if we informed them, 'as without reciprocity there was no right,' they could not, without injustice, issue prohibitions, in which we possessed no reciprocal advantages? Look round the world. Is France so liberal as to act on this law of reciprocity? Is America? Are Sweden and Denmark? Let it not then be said of England alone, that she is rapacious and unjust, because she acts on systems of maritime and colonial regulation. Her legislators and merchants will not attend to these abstractions and puerilities; and, when, she ceases to exercise the powers of law over her own colonies, merchants, ports, productions, and shipping, she will cease to be a nation.'

It may be worth notice, that France herself has adopted a *navigation law*, and during the short interval of peace, determined, even to the obvious injury of her infant trade, that no *foreign vessel* should be employed in her service.

The comparative table produced by the opponents of the navigation system, Mr. A. has dexterously turned against them, though he does not pledge himself for its accuracy. But if the arguments founded on them shall turn out to be very suicides, and if in their own statements exist their own refutation, the inference is very obvious. Mr. A. then pursues, more at length than we are able to follow him, an able defence of the navigation system; first, as it secures and extends the carrying-trade of Britain; and, secondly, as it tends to provide protection for general commerce and national existence, being the only adequate resource for a military navy. Deprecating the intercourse allowed between America and the British West Indies, he contends,

'That if on this subject a decisive policy were adopted and maintained, England and her dependencies would be able to furnish from their own produce, every article necessary to the supply of the British West Indies. Would Newfoundland be deficient in fish? Canada in lumber and corn? Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in timber of every kind? Ireland in cattle? England in manufactures? Every application to these would virtually augment their future means. Industry would be encouraged by a system regularly maintained; produce would in-

crease with industry; and, in a little time, America would be no longer heard to menace discriminating duties and port restrictions, because the islands would be no longer dependant on her power. In the interval, if the province of Great Britain, and her dependencies, be not wholly equal to the supply of the West-India market, let the American intercourse be maintained by English vessels, of English vessels there are indisputably enough for the purpose, and neither English capital nor inclination will be wanting to conduct the trade with regularity and vigour; it is a wavering, precarious, and yielding system alone, that can repel the British merchant from undertaking to maintain an intercourse of this nature. He asks nothing but the benefit of his own laws, and to maintain the laws will be most effectually to insure the supply.'

Mr. Alley has collected together a number of concessions from his adversaries, in which the navigation system is highly extolled; this sort of argument, though not conclusive, is of vast importance to a controversial writer.

A strain of just panegyric to Lord Sheffield, the author of the *Strictures*, concludes this interesting pamphlet. The vindication is well managed, at once defeating the opponent, and elucidating the subject of dispute. The author reasons from facts rather than theory. He appears to have had a competent and correct knowledge of the question he discusses; and has combined, in his pamphlet, much valuable matter, with many weighty, and, at this period, highly important arguments.

Art. VII. Sermons, chiefly designed to elucidate some of the leading Doctrines of the Gospel. By the Rev. Edmund Cooper. Rector of Hamstall, Ridware, &c. Vol. 2nd, 8vo. pp. 310. Price 5s. Cadell and Davies, 1806.

THE diversified talents of divines are wisely adapted to the various tastes of mankind, and amongst the numerous sermons that are constantly issuing from the press, every reader will meet with some, which comport with his particular views and feelings. It must, however, be acknowledged, that those discourses are best calculated for the general benefit mankind, which combine within themselves a regard to all the parts of Divine Revelation, and in which the preacher does 'not shun to declare the whole counsel of God.'

As we have already expressed our warm approbation of Mr. Cooper's theology, (E. R. I. 268) and our high opinion of his talents as a public instructor, in reviewing the first volume of his sermons, it is unnecessary for us to enlarge upon the merits of the second.

It is with no small degree of pleasure that we have observed him pursuing the same plan throughout these discourses.

The present volume contains 12 Sermons on the following subjects.

'The Sin and Danger of neglecting the great Salvation of the Gospel—The Life and Death of the real Christian—The Duty of surrendering ourselves to God, explained and enforced—Angels rejoicing over the penitent Sinner—Consolation to the Afflicted—Expostulation with careless Sinners—The Grace of Christ sufficient for the People—Hezekiah's Fall considered and applied—The Duty of confessing Christ before Men—The Advantages of Godliness to the present Life—Earnestness in Religion, recommended and enforced—The Marks of true Faith, stated and explained.'

As a specimen of the plain and warm addresses of our author, we select a passage from his discourse on the joy of angels over repenting sinners.

'If it be possible that you can require additional motives to repentance, the text, as it has been unfolded, will amply provide them. Contemplate the stupendous scene, which has been opened to your view. Behold the cloud of witnesses, with which you are encompassed. Behold the unnumbered millions of immortal Spirits waiting in joyful expectation your return to duty, to God, to happiness. Shall they wait in vain? Shall they be prepared to raise their angelic voices, and to strike their golden harps in celebration of your deliverance from the wretched captivity of sin; and will you madly cleave to sin, prefer its dreadful bondage, and in obstinate impenitence rush upon destruction? Shall Satan and his legions feel on your account a malignant pleasure, and insultingly triumph in your ruin; while angels might be rejoicing over you? Shall that soul, which might be furnishing fresh matter for praise and joy throughout the realms of light, continue immersed in fleshly lusts, in sensual gratifications, in worldly pleasures and pursuits, regardless of the high and glorious privileges, to which it is invited? God forbid, my brethren, that any of you should be so sunk, so lost! May that blessed Spirit, who only can *work in us to will and to do of his good pleasure*, work in you true repentance unto life! By the effectual operations of his grace may he enlighten your darkness, break the fetters with which you are bound, and constrain you henceforth *no longer to live unto yourselves, but unto Him, who died for you and rose again!*' pp. 89—91.

The following extract is calculated to refute the insinuation, that real religion diminishes the happiness of its sincere votary, and at the same time it places his character in a point of view, equally engaging and correct.

'*His enjoyments*' (says Mr. C.) 'are of a rational and holy nature. Where then is he to be found? In the crowded resorts of fashionable dissipation? In the seductive haunts of boisterous and licentious mirth? No. The pleasures, which such scenes afford, are to him offensive and disgusting. The passions, which they tend to excite and gratify, are those which it is his unceasing toil to subdue and mortify. See him on the busy stage of public life, stemming by his exertions the tide of im-

monality and profaneness; pleading the cause of the injured and oppressed; framing and promoting plans of extended and permanent beneficence. See him in the humbler walks of private life disseminating happiness within his narrow sphere; assisting the distressed, ministering to the sick, consoling the afflicted. See him in the social and domestic circle receiving and imparting useful knowledge, discoursing on the works and ways of Providence. See him in the assembly of the saints, pouring out his soul in prayer and praise. See him in his secret chamber, communing with his own heart, and holding delightful intercourse with his God. These are the enjoyments of the Christian: enjoyments which shame the trifling, sinful pleasures of the world, and shew the heavenly principle which operates within.' pp. 204, 205.

While we highly approve of the scriptural sentiments and zealous piety which this volume expresses, we think it not equal to the former. The author seems to have written in haste; and therefore has permitted many inaccuracies to escape his revision. There is, also, a considerable degree of sameness in several of the discourses. And, possibly, it may not be a hint unworthy the attention of our divines in general, if, in preparing sermons for the press, they would recollect, that the approbation of the public at large is not to be obtained by that scanty labour, which will often secure the attention of a single congregation.

At the same time we would be far from discouraging that kind of writing on religious topics, which, by its simplicity, is eminently adapted to instruct and improve the plainer orders of society. We have sometimes seen florid harangues under the title of Sermons, which would have proceeded with better grace from a school boy at a debate, than from a grave teacher of theology; nor is it one of our smallest gratifications to meet with pulpit lectures, equally remote from bombast and vulgarity. From a volume like this we rise, pleased with the affectionate and animated preacher, and in love with the glorious gospel he enforces; impressed with shame for our past deficiencies, and with earnest resolutions for future exertion.

Art. VIII. *Observations and Experiments on the Digestive Powers of the Bile in Animals.* By Eaglesfield Smith. 8vo. pp. 77. Price 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

THE object of this little volume is to prove, that the Bile is the great menstruum by which digestion and the formation of chyle are effected; and that the gastric juice, or fluid secreted in the stomach of animals, does not possess any digestive power whatever.

The author informs us, that he has endeavoured, in the present work, to shew the truth of these positions from observations and experiments on the digestive power in animals. As one appro-

priate and well performed experiment is always much more satisfactory to us, than a number of vague and indecisive observations, we turned over the volume with a considerable degree of eagerness for an account of the promised experiments. But we must acknowledge that we here experienced no small degree of disappointment; since, excepting the administering of an ounce of the gall of sheep daily to a man labouring under a severe fit of the jaundice, we find nothing of the sort, but that which occurs in the following paragraph.

'To ascertain the digestive powers of the Bile by experiment, the following was made upon frogs:—Cold-blooded animals appearing best adapted to the purpose, on account of their being more tenacious of their living principle, and their interior cavities less susceptible of inflammation, when laid open by incision. The abdomens of several frogs were therefore laid open, and the excretory ducts of the gall obstructed by ligature: the wounds were then sewed up, and the animals left to recover themselves; in this state they were fed with insects and pieces of earth-worm cut small: after the space of twenty-eight hours the stomachs of two of them were opened, but no appearance of digestion seemed to have taken place in the insects, and the change in the earth-worm from the action of the absorbents was scarcely perceptible. Two remaining frogs were fed with the gall of other frogs killed for the purpose, and after fourteen hours, on opening them the appearance was totally different from the foregoing; the pieces of earth-worm had entirely disappeared, and nothing but the shells and wings of the insects remained. There did not appear to be any want of health from the operation of incision in the animals when the experiment was made; as milk thrown into their stomachs coagulated as in the natural state of that cavity. This experiment is most successful during the heat of the Summer, when these animals have attained their greatest degree of irritability of life.'

p. 58.

It must be obvious to every one, that from experiments performed, or at least described, with so little exactness, no certain conclusions can be drawn. Of several frogs who were rendered the subjects of examination, the result with four only is related. Did the experiments fail, or were the results contradictory? In either event, the result and the particulars of each experiment should have been fairly detailed; and as this has not been done, no one can form a just opinion of the general evidence. Unless the greatest accuracy is preserved in the description of experiments, it is impossible to determine how far the different appearances, in different cases, may depend on the degree of injury which the animal has sustained by this cruel inquisition. The stomach, which, after the irritation of opening the abdomen, and tying up the bile ducts, did still digest its food, might, from a very slight variation in the operation, be rendered wholly incapable of performing this function, though even fed with the gall of other frogs, as was done by Mr. Smith.

We have a very different and more important objection to these experiments. Pain should never be unnecessarily inflicted. The tortures occasioned by dissecting alive should therefore be only permitted, when some great and adequate good can be obtained by that, and by no other means. When close and just reasoning has led to an opinion, by the establishing of which the means may be discovered of diminishing or removing some of the numerous diseases with which mankind is afflicted; then if no other mode exists of discovering the necessary facts, we must submit to the sacrifice. But when hypothesis, unsupported either by observation or argument, is thought to warrant such a cruel examination, we cannot but lament that man should so forget his responsibility for the exercise of his dominion, and that his *fellow creatures*, who are the subjects of his power, should be the victims of his wanton curiosity.

In the present instance, before he adopted such a mode of investigation, the author would have done well to consider, how far his assertion that the gall is always found in considerable quantity, and at all times, in the stomach of all animals, whether muscular or membranous, agrees with this fact; that bile is seldom ejected even by an emetic, except when the operation is so severe or so long protracted, as to force that part of the duodenum which is near to the stomach to assume with that viscus, an action directly contrary to its natural peristaltic motion; which produces a retropulsion of the contents of the duodenum, and, with them of the increased quantity of bile which the extraordinary pressure of the gall bladder has mechanically forced into that intestine. But even this case is adduced by the author in proof of his particular opinions.

'That the stomach by its action has the power of causing this regurgitation into its own cavity, may be observed in the operation of emetics, in the sea sickness, cholera, &c. when pure Gall is frequently voided at the mouth.'

Thus to prove that the stomach possesses and exercises, during health, a peculiar power, it is shewn that this power is exercised in cases where inordinate morbid action is induced: on such reasoning it is unnecessary to comment.

Other arguments we notice, which are equally vague or inapplicable. That the erosions, which have taken place in the stomach of animals after death, may with more propriety be attributed to the action of the bile, than to that of the gastric juice, will require to be supported by a stronger reason, than because they are generally found at the bottom of the stomach, where our author says, the gall is in the greatest abundance, p. 10. That a superabundant secretion and flow of the gall into the stomach, often produces great voraciousness, requires somewhat more like proof than its having been 'related of a man, otherwise enjoying good

who (that he) devoured such large quantities of grass that the farmers used to turn him out of their fields." P. 28. That it is not the intention of Providence that the aliment should be digested in the stomach, demands better arguments for its proof, than that "as two processes cannot take place in the same substance at the same time, if the solvent of digestion was secreted by the stomach, that change which is necessary to fit the fibre to be acted on would be impeded by it, and no digestion produced." p. 70.—It must require other facts, beside the easy miscibility of bile with animal and vegetable oils, to enable us to agree with the author, that 'no unbiassed person will hesitate in pronouncing it to be the grand menstruum employed by nature for the purpose of digestion.' P. 36. And particularly, in proof of this opinion, will it be required to explain, how the fæces become so well concocted, and undergo so thorough a digestion, in those ietic cases in which not a particle of bile passes into the intestines.

Upon the whole we find ourselves obliged to say, that the peculiar opinions of this author are neither supported by his arguments, nor proved by his experiments. We trust however that the love of inquiry which he has here manifested, will, on some other occasion, lead him to such an exercise of his abilities, as may afford us the opportunity of commending his judgement, as well as his zeal.

Art. IX. *A Translation of the Charges of P. Massillon, Bishop of Clermont; addressed to his Clergy: with Two Essays; the One on the Art of Preaching, translated from the French of M. Reybaz; and the other on the Composition of a Sermon, as adapted to the Church of England, &c. &c.* By the Rev. Thophilus, St. John, L.L.B. &c 8vo. pp. 310. Price 6s. Rivingtons, 1805.

THE religion of Jesus is superior to dependence upon either literature or eloquence; their presence can add nothing to its innate excellence, and their absence cannot affect its security; but both the one and the other derive lustre from religion, and never appear to such advantage as when employed in its service. They are both useful when rendered subservient to truth; and appear then most dignified, when they join in its triumph over the sophistry, and the ignorance of its adversaries. Incapable as they are of restoring one depraved disposition, or implanting one genuine virtue, they are highly valuable to religious instructors, in subordinate and auxiliary services. While some, by neglecting them, have disguised the most important truths under a clumsy and repulsive exterior, and appeared labouring to be unintelligible, or at least uninteresting,—others have successfully associated genius with piety, and the charms of eloquence with the doctrines of the Gospel.

things there may be excess. Much as we have been mortified by seeing good sense obscured by mean and low language, we have been still more disgusted by a shewy pompous diction, attempting to conceal a miserable poverty of meaning. We observe, with pain, that, in the crowd of sermons which are every day issuing from the press, few rise above mediocrity, and that what our modern writers have gained in composition, they often seem to have lost in sentiment.

We turn with pleasure from the tinsel of meretricious ornament, and the disgusting neglect of regular composition, to the volume before us; and are recompensed for the drudgery of toiling through insipid, uninteresting works, by the fervid eloquence, and affectionate zeal, of the amiable Bishop of Clermont.

The French preachers are distinguished for eloquence of a certain description, more brilliant than impressive, more vivid than permanent, more declamatory than argumentative. They seem suited to produce rather a transient stage-effect, than lasting influence on the heart. All are not, however, of this description; and there are many which may be read with considerable advantage, by young men devoted to the duties of the pulpit.

The work before us is deserving of praise, as a specimen of animated, impressive, and appropriate composition, but it is more estimable for its intrinsic worth, and for the excellence of its solemn and important admonitions. The subjects of discussion are highly interesting, and they are pressed upon the heart with equal ability and seriousness. The translator says,

'Massillon is an author who cannot be read with pleasure, nor even endured, in a literal translation: he multiplies words with such abundant profusion, that an English reader, not perceiving (it being impossible to preserve) the graces of his stile, would be fatigued, and even disgusted, by the same idea so often, with scarcely a change of words, presented to his mind. I was therefore reduced to this dilemma, either to abridge and translate the author, and of consequence, sometimes unavoidably, to weaken his sense, and retain to a certain degree the idiom of his language; or to express his sentiments in my own style—and had I preferred the latter, and had even succeeded, I should have offered to the reader, at best, but an imperfect imitation.'

Having therefore preferred the former mode, he has preserved, with considerable success, both his spirit and his beauties; and pruning the redundancies of his stile, has improved his composition to an English ear.

The subjects are arranged in the following order: Charge I. On the excellence of the priesthood. II. On propriety of character; in which Massillon considers the spirit of the ministry, a spirit of separation from the world, of prayer, of labour, of zeal, of knowledge, of piety. III. On zeal. IV. On being called to the Christian ministry. A large part of this charge is

"entirely omitted" by the translator; since, he says, "from the first part of this discourse little advantage could be derived by a protestant clergyman;" the second part fares no better, for it "relates to the approbation of the pastor by the people." From the specimen which he gives, in the note on this part, of the French Bishop's eloquence, and justness of appeal to the consciences of his clergy, some, perhaps many, readers, will be sorry that he has entirely omitted the second part; especially those who do not conceive that a congregation's "choice of its own minister" is such a subject of horror as the translator seems to think it, when he exclaims, "God forbid! for a regulation so injudicious would banish from the church every good, and introduce into it every evil." V. On reflection on the success of our ministry. VI. On solicitude for the salvation of souls. VII. On solicitude to suppress vice. VIII. On a good example. IX. On the excellence of the ministry. This charge is a methodical and beautiful exposition of the words selected (which are Rom. ii. 17---21.) in the order in which they regularly occur. X. On the manner in which the clergy are to conduct themselves among men of the world. XI. On the prudent conversation and behaviour of the clergy. XII. On the solicitude the clergy ought to shew for their people when confined by sickness. XIII. The pernicious effects of avarice in the clergy. XIV. On mildness and gentleness. XV. On the necessity of prayer. XVI. On study and knowledge. To these charges is added by the translator, a catalogue of books recommended by the Bishop of Lincoln to the clergy, with a list of their prices; a letter on the art of preaching, translated from M. Reybaz; and thoughts on the composition of a sermon adapted to the church of England, by the translator: the volume closes with a prayer for the use of the younger clergy.

The following extracts may serve as a slight specimen of Massillon's manner; but it is difficult to select any part which will do justice to the *whole*. In the first charge, he remarks,

"A minister, worldly in his affections, and irregular in his conduct, although he should do no other injury to religion than exhibit his own life, introduces an accumulation of evils into the Christian Church. What secret satisfaction! what encouraging apologies for excess, when many find their follies countenanced, and their vices authorized by his depravity! We preach to them in vain; the life of the clergy, of whom they are witnesses, is, with the generality of men, the Gospel; it is not what we declare in the house of God, it is what they see us practise in our general demeanour; they look upon the public ministry as a stage designed for the display of exalted principles, beyond the reach of human weakness; but they consider our life as the reality by which they are to be directed."

He speaks of an ungodly minister, in the following emphatic

terms, as one of the greatest punishments inflicted by God on a guilty nation.—“When the Almighty,” says our author,

“ Is not thoroughly provoked, he contents himself with arming kings against kings, and people against people; he reverses the order of the seasons; he strikes the country with barrenness; he spreads desolation, famine, and death on the earth. But when he says in his wrath, what chastisement have I yet in reserve to inflict on my people, and what is the last mark of mine anger that I can shew unto them, ‘ they,’ says he, ‘ which lead them, shall cause them to err.’ ”

The bishop finishes this address with a solemn and interesting remark, worthy the serious consideration of every Christian minister of every denomination:

“ I comprise the substance and utility of this exhortation in one reflection. I can neither singly destroy nor save myself: from the moment I became one of the Lord’s ministers, I have been either a scourge in his hands for the affliction of men, or a blessing sent down from heaven for their salvation.”

In the fifth charge, he remarks concerning the vices against which ministers ought to be upon their guard:

“ They are not heinous offences which we have the most to fear: a foundation of religion, a virtuous education, an established reputation of uniform conduct, veneration for the holiness of our ministry, may all conduce to preserve us from them: what we have most to guard against is, that the spirit of piety, so essential to our sacred calling, may not become extinct; that we may not go to sleep in a state insensible of the joys of heaven, accompanied with apparent regularity, and devoid of genuine religion. We do not perceive in our life any notorious sin; and we do not at the same time perceive, that a life which is not founded in piety, is itself sinful in the eyes of God.”

The following paragraph, which closes the charges, may serve as a specimen of the gentleness, yet fidelity, with which they are enforced, and of the spirit by which this amiable prelate was actuated:

“ I implore you then, my reverend brethren, to obviate an evil, which represents you to yourselves, and to each other, in so unfavourable a light: restore to this great diocese the high character which it has always sustained, by the universal observance of this salutary discipline: my course is already far advanced, suffer it not to end with the mortification of seeing a practice, productive of such substantial good, fall into entire disuse: spare my old age this sorrow; rather renew it with fresh vigour, by renovating your zeal for your duty, more especially for the conferences, which are so wisely prescribed. Fulfil ye my joy: the love of study will be renovated with them. Second, then, the wishes of a pastor who hath always loved you, who hath never exercised, but with regret, his authority over his brethren, and who may therefore reasonably hope, that without having recourse to severity, his remonstrances will, of themselves, find the way to your hearts.”

One material defect in these charges, is the recurrence of the same thoughts so often : is scarcely an apology to say, that there is none among them which may not be well endured in repetition.

The extracts, which we have given, cannot properly be called selections. They are a few, among a multitude of beautiful and important reflections, which press upon the reader in every page. Some of the exhortations are rendered luminous by correct arrangement ; others, assuming the shape of essays, pursue a train of thought without distinct divisions. In our opinion, a discourse intended for the pulpit is essentially defective, if it has not a clear and decided method which the mind can embrace, and the memory retain.

There are several remarks worthy of attention, in the translated and original essays at the close of this volume. The work would have been more truly unexceptionable, if the translator had spared one or two reflections upon those who dissent from the Church of England. There was not any occasion, for instance, when M. Reybaz says, "The whole eloquence of the person, at least with many preachers, consists in spreading their hands for the purpose of uniting them with a loud noise, and in continually repeating this periodical motion ;" for the translator to add in note, "This censure equally applies to the methodists, calvinist independents," &c. Vociferation, and ludicrous or improper gesticulations, are no more a part of "Calvinism" or dissent, than of an establishment and episcopacy. We are sorry when a publication like the present contains *any thing* which can prejudice any party against it : we wish it to be universally read ; and it was not necessary that the translator should censure the dissenters, in order to prove himself a clergyman.

The omission of references to the several texts of scripture prefixed to these charges, is, in our opinion, a very unbecoming neglect.

Art. X. *Answer to War in Disguise*; or Remarks upon the new Doctrine of England concerning Neutral Trade, (New York printed, London reprinted). pp. 76. Price 2s. 6d. Johnson, London, 1806.

Art. XI. *An Examination of the British Doctrine*, which subjects to Capture a neutral Trade not open in Time of Peace, 2d. Edit. (Amend printed, London reprinted.) pp. 200. Ap. 17. Price 5s. Johnson, London, 1806.

Art. XII. *Belligerent Rights asserted and vindicated against neutral Encroachments*, being an Answer to an Examination, &c. pp. 9. Price 3s. Johnson, London, 1806.

THE celebrated pamphlet which has given rise to these publications, has already passed under our notice ; but we think

it right to state, very briefly, the scope of that work, in order to elucidate the subject in dispute.

The author of *War in Disguise*, professes to support a principle of the law of nations, (first specifically applied by this country in 1756, and thence called the rule of the war in 1756,) declaring, in substance, that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities, by trading with his colonies in time of war in a way that was prohibited in time of peace. In maintaining this principle, he forcibly displays the evils arising to this country, from neutral interference in the colonial trade of France. On the other hand, he remarks, that our enemies have, for the most part, only changed their flags, chartered many vessels really neutral, and altered a little the former routes of their trade; and that their transmarine sources of revenue, instead of being for a moment injured by our hostilities, are at present scarcely impaired. Tracing this evil to the pressure of war, and the cupidity of neutrals, he discusses the remedy of checking it by force, and maintains that to apply that remedy, is, under present circumstances, equally just and politic.

The work we shall first take into consideration, professes to be an answer to *War in Disguise*; the author informs us, "that he is not a practitioner of the law; he is not a merchant; he has no interest in trade; he holds no office; and has no connection with those who administer the government." It would appear therefore, that the present is one of the most calm, dispassionate, and liberal answers, that can be reasonably expected. This liberality is confined to concessions that exceedingly embarrass the progress of the writer. In page 6, alluding to the author of *War in Disguise*, he says,

"We gladly pay our tribute of applause to great part of his work, especially to that which shews in a manner equally clear and forcible, the mischiefs resulting from what is called the neutral carrying-trade, or what might more properly be called the covering-trade. We fully agree with him, that it is inconsistent with neutral duties, and eventually hostile to neutral rights; that it derogates from the national honor, poisons the public morals, and is injurious alike to our interest and reputation. In this persuasion, we believe that, to restrain it, the American government will honestly and heartily concur in every measure of reason and justice."

Having approached the argument, as he terms it, by such acknowledgments, he roundly asserts, on coming up with it, that "the principle on which the rule of 1756, was founded, was denied by that nation against whom it was applied; and neither that nation nor any other has ever assented to it; and much less to the conclusions from it, which are now stated."

After this assertion, he again loses sight of his argument, and

enriches his pages with citations from Sir W. Scott. This enlightened Judge, our author professes highly to respect, yet his respect attaches not to the judge, but to the gentleman. "The reason" says he "is obvious, prize courts are bound, from their nature and office, to decree according to the orders of their reign." This most rash and puerile assertion, he attempts to support by argument, if it may be so called, drawn from a dictum of Sir Wm. Scott, stating the text of the instructions to be the true rule of that court; as if it were tyrannical, in our country, to adhere to instructions by which we *relinquished a part of our belligerent rights!* We know not whether this nonsense in the American author, is to be imputed to weakness or knavery. He has thought it worth while to afflict his readers with a long comment on this very point, as if he hoped to persuade them, that these instructions are the *authority* on which seizures are justified, instead of being a modification and restriction of the fundamental right, which is now called in question.

This work is, indeed, such a farrago of assumed facts, and absurd applications, as we have seldom seen huddled together. For example; "suppose France and Spain" it is said, "should revive the colonial monopoly, a relaxation of which is said to justify captures, would Britain have a right to take the smuggler in time of war whom she could not touch in time of peace? and if not, by what perversion of reason and conscience can it be pretended that a trade is innocent only while it is criminal, and criminal the moment it becomes innocent?" A smuggler's violations of colonial monopoly are beside the question. At a relaxation of it from the pressure of war, the *smuggler* becomes an *ally*; his interference is made innocent toward France, because it is auxiliary; it becomes criminal toward England, because it is hostile.—Again; "whenever Great Britain, by force or otherwise, shall conquer a colony, which we suppose to be meant by turning the enemy out of the exclusive possession," we shall not dispute or attempt to share the rights she may have acquired; but we must be permitted to observe, that attack and conquest are definite words, of distinct meaning, which must not be confounded. Cutting off an enemy's intercourse with his colony, is *turning the enemy out of the exclusive possession*, but no one calls it a *conquest*; it certainly is that pressure of war which approaches toward a conquest, just as a blockaded port is the nearer falling by the interception of supplies. The question is, whether it be consistent with neutrality, to relieve such a pressure, and obstruct such an impending conquest.

The following is a bold specimen of absurdity.

"Before we leave the argument of Sir Wm. Scott, let us, however, make one remark. He certainly did not mean to justify the French Emperor, should he prohibit the neutral commerce with Britain: Yet I

such an idea had entered the Emperor's mind, might be not, at the head of his army near Boulogne, have proclaimed, "that it was his indubitable right to possess himself of Great Britain: that he had the certain means of carrying that right into effect, &c. &c. Would the British government consider a conclusion drawn from these premises, that nobody should trade with England, as worthy of serious refutation? Yet where is the difference (in reason) between the Island of Britain threatened by France, and the Island of Martinique threatened by England."

Comment here would be insulting to the common sense of the reader. To shew how this author persists to insult it, we shall copy the following illustrations:

'The rule, (or to speak more correctly, the practice) of the seven years war, being therefore a measure of necessity, can never be applied to ordinary' [he should have said *similar*] 'cases; even against the party whose weakness had submitted. To deduce consequences from it now, is as logical as to conclude, that he who has once been acquitted for killing a man in *self-defence*, has a right to kill every man he meets!'—p. 37.

Speaking of neutral frauds, perjuries, &c. he inquires, "shall it be contended, that because a prudent man riding near London, conceals his purse and watch, the first highwayman he meets has a right to take it!"

What reliance could a writer place on the strength of his cause, when he attempted to enforce it by such *persiflage*?

Having dragged us through thirty pages, our author thinks it right "to take a moment to consider whence a belligerent derives his right to make prize of a neutral." A wise resolution. And in this part of the subject, as before, he concedes all that is necessary to support the author he combats. "*He has never heard it gravely stated as a rule of law, that the property of an innocent man may be justly taken from him whenever it is convenient to his powerful neighbour.*" Certainly not! nor any one else! "*If however the neutral divests himself of his proper character, and takes part in the war, he may justly be treated according to that character. His property then becomes lawful prize.*" Thus is the question really at issue, again evaded, though in substance conceded. Under cover of such general assertions, as that a belligerent cannot justly complain of the consequences of a *lawful act*, or impute guilt to a neutral for *lawful acts*, he combats imaginary opponents, not the author of War in Disguise. The *legality of the acts* is the thing disputed.

Numerous inconsistencies not less palpable, abound in this vague and declamatory pamphlet; it came in such a questionable shape, that it was our duty to examine it, and though sufficiently *neutral* as to its produce, we think the false papers it contains, justly entitle it to condemnation.

The author of the *Examination of the British Doctrine*, whom we understand, is the Hon. James Madison, Secretary of State under the American Government, discusses the subject with more ability than the gentleman we have noticed. He enters at large into such principles of the law of nations as he deems applicable, either founded in the most acknowledged authors, or modified by treaties, (1st. in which Great Britain did not, and 2d. wherein she did become a party,) reviews her conduct, and finally examines the grounds on which it is defended. The terms, British Doctrine, and British Principle, but ill accord with a fair and liberal inquiry into the subject; and we enter our early protest against such insidious misnomers. Britain contends for the legal exercise of a fundamental principle of the law of nations, competent to her only to exercise, at present, by reason of her maritime superiority over France. She denies it to be any new principle in the law of nations; in which there cannot be any new principle, though cases may occur in which the application of old principles may be termed new.

Our author begins by laying down some propositions, by way of axioms, which are not in all respects either true or consistent. Thus he says, "that between nations not engaged in war, it is evident that the commerce cannot be effected at all by a war between others;" in page 2d, "But inasmuch as the trade of a neutral nation with a belligerent nation might, in certain special cases, affect the safety of its antagonist, usage, founded on the principle of necessity, has admitted a few exceptions to the general rule."

This, if we understand the matter rightly, concedes nearly all that is absolutely necessary to support the contested principle; the only question then is the application to existing circumstances. This is not very difficult when we find he admits that *the neutral intervention may be said to result from the pressure of the war; and that such a trade becomes auxiliary to the prosperity of the Belligerent with whom it is carried on, at once liberating his naval faculties for the purpose of war, and enabling him to carry it on with more vigour and effect.*

The first part of his subject is premised by three several remarks, viz. 1st. That it is a general rule for a trade between a neutral and a belligerent to be as free as if the latter were at peace; yet in cases excepted that the exceptions are to be taken strictly against the party claiming them. 2d. That such exceptions being founded on necessity, that necessity ought to be urgent. 3d. That the progress of the law of nations, influenced by science and humanity, is mitigating the evils of war, and diminishing the motives to it, by favouring the rights of those at peace rather than those at war. The third remark is of a nature so exceedingly loose and undefined, that it must inevitably involve any

any reasoning founded on it in obscurity or doubt. If we are to understand any thing of this progressive law, it is ultimately to abrogate war with all its rights and privileges. But if belligerents have rights, as well as neutrals, they are equally unalterable. No great acuteness is necessary to see, that such an abrogation would multiply the occasions of war, instead of diminishing its evils.

Our author proceeds to enumerate his authorities, briefly dismissing, as inapplicable, all that are prior to Gentilis and Grotius, *on account of the great change which has taken place in the state of manners, maxims of war, and course of commerce*. Even Grotius is said to yield to later Jurists who "to all the lights furnished by this luminary, have added those derived from their own sources, and from the improvements made in the intercourse and happiness of nations." Now according to Mr. Madison's account of the law of nations, there cannot be any thing more variable and fluctuating;—more subject to times and seasons, and changes of commerce or manners. It is curious that he should complain of the British Doctrine as varying from the *old* principles. In truth he is incumbered with authorities; many of these are not applicable to the case, and those which bear directly on the point, may be construed to support the principles maintained by the author of War in Disguise. In proof of our opinion, see page 8, 10, 11. : the arguments of Grotius, as quoted, have reference to the *accustomed trade* of neutrals with belligerents, a very different trade indeed from that opened to them by *necessity*, and the pressure of the war; and his silence respecting the latter, so far from being as Mr. Madison terms it, *an abundant proof that he considered the matter as groundless*, is really no proof at all, except that no such interference of neutrals was then known;—and that belligerent rights were treated with more respect than *soi-disant* neutrals are now willing to allow them.

He next quotes Puffendorf, who is against him, then Bynkershoek, who "did not even glance at the question." The inference however is equally obvious! "Does it not necessarily and undeniably follow, either that no such pretension had at that period ever been started, or that it had received no countenance, which could entitle it to notice?" We respect the honourable author's zeal, or we should not take the trouble to remark, that no one pretends to redress an injury before it has been committed; the jurists seem to have had as little idea of providing against such violations, as Solon had of naming a punishment for patricide.

Vattel is next pressed into the service, after some critical remarks impeaching his want of careful discrimination, of clearness, consistency, and exactness of definition. These appear

to have been highly necessary, for we need not say, the quotation, so far as it goes, is against Mr. Madison. Last of all comes Martens; the first quotation from him is very awkwardly selected, viz.. "The right that a nation enjoys in time of peace of selling and carrying all sorts of merchandize to every nation who chooses to trade with it, it enjoys also in time of war, *provided that it remains neutral.*" This very neutrality is the question.

It may be strongly objected, that the jurists invariably refer to the *status quo ante bellum*, as the definition of neutral rights, not meaning to allow a trade, opened by the pressure of war. In reply, Mr. M. observes, impeaching all his documents,

' As there is no evidence that the distinction was known at the dates of the elder writers, it would be absurd to suppose them alluding to a state of things which had never existed, rather than to a state of things which was familiar in practice: and with respect to the more modern writers, to most of whom the distinction appears to have been equally unknown, the absurdity of the supposition is doubled, by its inconsistency with the whole tenor and completion of their doctrines and reasonings in behalf of neutral rights: further on 'their silence alone therefore is an unanswerable proof that the exception now contended for, could not be known, or could not be recognized, by those writers.'

This unanswerable proof we have already had the happiness of discussing. Surely it is not for Mr. Madison to urge it, who so liberally allows of the progressive improvement of the law of nations, the accession of new to older rights, the changes of manners, commerce, &c. &c.

His next head of research is that of Treaties: not those wherein Great Britain was a party, (who might therefore be presumed to be bound by her agreement, however different from the law of nations), but those in which she was in no wise concerned. He is peculiarly unfortunate in the first quoted, which legalized, 'as between the United Provinces and Spain,' the carriage *even of contraband war* to France. He quotes in a note several other instances of a similar nature; without suspecting that they prove too much.

Then the treaties to which Great Britain was a party are enumerated, so far as they relate to his argument. The conduct of other nations comes next under consideration, and lastly that of Great Britain. The rights of the belligerents and neutrals are strangely jumbled in this section. By transferring the right of the belligerent to the neutral, of the one belligerent to the other, &c. and reasoning from such defective premises, we are led into a maze of contradiction and absurdities. The grand point in controversy seems here to be completely and conveniently forgotten; and the royal instructions given at different periods of the last and present war, *in relaxation of our belligerent*

rights, with the judgements founded upon them in our Admiralty Courts, furnish Mr. M. with a copious, though very unwarrantable, strain of crimination. To conclude the bulky pamphlet, he reviews the reasons urged in defence of the British principle, stating very fairly those used by Sir W. Scott. So clearly and unequivocally indeed do the reasons bear upon the question, that our author feels their force, and is driven into a curious situation, viz. to admit the reasonableness of the claim, but to contend that the law of nations, *being an established Code*, must be the governing principle of decision. This is appropriately inconsistent, after unequivocally denying that any part of such law was specifically adapted to the subject, the case having been wholly unknown to the elder writers on the law of nations, and unnoticed by the latter; and after stating the mutable and improving condition of the principles of national intercourse.

Mr. Madison then examines Mr. Ward's publication, which he accuses very unjustly of being so vague and confused, that it is difficult to find out its real meaning. We can only account for so harsh a censure, by supposing that Mr. Madison did not chuse to understand the real meaning: for willing to give it any interpretation, but that which is obvious, he endeavours vainly to make it contradictory to the opinion of Sir W. Scott.

After an impartial consideration of this work, it appears to us that the principle it professes to oppose is actually conceded, though vast labour has been taken to get rid of its force, or distort its import. The view taken of the grand question is vague and defective, though tediously voluminous. Authority is crowded upon authority, comment upon comment, with little judgement or reference to the point at issue. The language is dry, feeble, and involved, painfully minute and verbose, and ill suited either for argument or elucidation.

This pamphlet, as might have been expected, (coming from such high official authority) did not remain long without reply. The writer of '*Belligerent rights vindicated*', states as a reason for thus coming forward, that 'the great weight of the gentleman to whom the last publication is attributed, has drawn towards it so large a portion of the public attention, that it has been deemed requisite to have its inaccuracies and inconsistencies pointed out, and its unwarranted conclusions combated.'

'In order to do this in the most satisfactory manner, no reference is made to any fact, or to a quotation from any authority, but such as are found in this reprint of the American tract itself, and to which correct reference is made.' Commencing with the rule of the war in 1756, and the principle on which it was founded, he takes a short review of its operations, and the modifications that have been made on it by the royal instructions at

different times, with a view to prove that they were all restrictions upon the full rights of Great Britain. It will not be necessary to follow him in this part of the subject, nor in his comment on the laws of nations as quoted by his opponent, since we have already endeavoured to shew the fallacy of the arguments contained in the examination; in our opinion the present writer has easily and triumphantly refuted them.

The evidence derived from treaties is ably turned against the author of the examination.

' Of these sixteen (the number quoted by him to which Great Britain was not a party) four are between France and Holland, and are therefore only repetitions, two between Holland and Spain, and two between Holland and Sweden, which are equally so: thus these eight treaties can be taken but as three. This reduces the treaties quoted to eleven, of which six are in favour of the rule of 1756; what then becomes of this argument of the American advocate? Besides, to what do these treaties amount? to every one of them but two nations are parties: there was no general assent, no general recognition; they are therefore but a voluntary and positive national law between the subscribing parties, and between them alone.'

One treaty is between France and the Duke of Mecklenburg! Of the number to which Great Britain was a party, the author after a short comment, concludes that out of all these treaties,

' Ten are repetitions or confirmations of those of 1713; three do not decide one way or the other, seven are said to be against Great Britain, and eight support the principle of the rule of 1756; and let it be marked and remembered by the reader, that no authority is adverted to, but such as are quoted by the American writer himself, and his account of the treaties which he brings forward is taken for granted as correct.'

The arguments adduced from the conduct of other nations is shewn to be inconclusive, because no nation has been in the condition to be injured by neutral interference in the colonial trade of her enemy, but Great Britain; since it has become a policy to open that trade in time of war which is always kept closed in time of peace.

Proceeding in the steps of Mr. Madison, our author says,

' The fourth general head of the American author is the conduct of Great Britain, which he divides into two parts; and first, that whilst Great Britain denies to her enemies a right to relax their laws in favour of neutral commerce, she relaxes her own, those relating as well to her colonial trade, as to other branches, p. 76; in which he says, she is governed by the same policy of eluding the pressures of war, and of transferring her merchants ships, and mariners from the pursuits of commerce to the operations of war, p. 78; and those remarks occur again in page 79, 81, 100, et seq. and 190—Pray in what do these remarks impugn the rule of 1756. Does Great Britain deny to her enemy the right to open her colonial ports in time of war? No, not a bit more than she denies her the right of conveying her colonial produce in her own ships during war. But Great Britain says this to the belligerent, open your

ports, and welcome ; but I will intercept your own trade with them, and all neutral commerce with them too, which you have admitted contrary to your customary peace-regulations. Does any one deny to a belligerent to levy troops in a neutral country ? No one certainly. Yet such levy in any country is a good ground of war, and an evident departure from neutrality ; and therefore an act of which the injured belligerent has a right to oppose. Does any one deny the right to the belligerent to purchase contraband of war of a neutral nation, and to have it conveyed in a neutral ship ? No one denies this right to the belligerent ; but the right of affording this supply, help, and succour, is by all denied to the neutral. It is not the right to the belligerent to receive assistance, but the right to the neutral to give it, which is the question. In the case of a blockaded town, no one denies the right of the besieged to receive supplies, but the neutral conveys them at his peril, and subject, if intercepted, to capture and condemnation.

'The relaxations, therefore, of her colonial monopoly by Great Britain, afford no sort of argument against the right which she exercises, of capturing and condemning a neutral trade shut in peace, and opened in war by her enemies.'

In a train of argument agreeably striking and just, our author satisfactorily refutes the calumnies and false reasoning contained in the examination. We shall take one or two more examples, and close our remarks on this interesting subject.

The advocate of neutral claims, says he, does not attempt to deny the position of Mr. Ward, that a neutral trade is unlawful, which is not *with* but *for* an enemy (p. 188) and he acknowledges as a principle settled by ancient judgments, the position laid down by Sir Wm. Scott, that *neutrals are not permitted to trade on freight*, (p. 141.) Yet he quibbles upon these propositions, and essays to fritter them down to nothing. He appears incapable of considering commerce in any other relation than that existing between the immediate individuals concerned in it, and never once recollects, that in this discussion it is to be considered, in its relation to the belligerents and the neutrals, as nations. A belligerent coasting trade, of belligerent produce, may be carried on by neutrals, as property belonging to the neutral owner of the ship ; and then to him individually it is not a trading on freight : But is this the just view of the principle, or its just application ? A neutral buys wine at Bourdeaux, ships it in his own ship, and sails, intending to carry his cargo to Caen, and there dispose of it. Is not this to every national purpose a trade on freight ? and most decisively, is it not a trade *for*, instead of *with*, an enemy ? To trade *with* an enemy, nationally considered, is to trade to and from a country, or between the neutral state and the belligerent power ; while to trade *for* an enemy, is to enable him to have his commerce carried on as usual, to have his internal markets of his own produce and manufactures supplied without interruption, that the consumption of his people may be continued without derangement, and his industry may be unchecked.' And again, 'Feeling himself driven from his first position already quoted by both authority, treaty, and practice, and finding himself under the necessity of abandoning the neutral claim to carry on openly the colony and coasting trades of a belligerent, either upon belligerent or neutral account, the American author endeavours to defend the evasion of this rule by his country. Conscious that the citizens of the

United States have abused the indulgence and moderation of Great Britain, in permitting them a trade to and from the West Indian colonies of France, by exporting from American ports their previous imports from French colonies, and that this passage through the ports and Custom-houses of America, was a mere farce, he complains heavily of subjecting to capture, colonial produce re-exported from a neutral country to countries, to which a direct transportation from the colonies by vessels of the re-exporting country has been disallowed by British regulations; (p. 124.) and contends, that no doubt had existed that our importation of colonial produce into a neutral country, converted it into the commercial stock of the country; with all the rights, especially those of exportation, incident to the produce or manufactures of the country itself. (p. 126.) Now to what purpose are those remarks? Does the author mean to say that neutrals have a right to do that indirectly which they are prohibited from doing directly? Does he mean to justify that fraud, which renders an importation of colonial produce into America a cover, for enabling the neutral flag to carry on the trade between colonies and the mother country? if he does he will not find many to applaud the skill of his evasion, or to approve the morality or honour of his contrivance. Besides, the author admits 'experience has finally shewn that the activity, the capital, and the œconomy, employed by the American traders, have overpowered the disadvantages incident to the circuit through the ports of the United States.' (p. 132.)—If this then is the case, re-exportations of colonial produce are auxiliary to our enemy's prosperity and revenue, and enable him to carry on the war with more vigour and effect (p. 3.) They are therefore on the authority of Grotius, *siding with the enemy* (p. 10.) or that of Bynkershoek, *a taking a part in the war* (p. 20.) and in the language of Vattel, *an injury which the belligerent has a particular right to oppose* (p. 26.)—

The appendix contains a brief reply to the letter of Mr. Monroe (the American Plenipotentiary) to Lord Mulgrave, when Secretary of State, added to the second edition of the Examination; and a still shorter, though no less conclusive, refutation of the first pamphlet noticed in this article.

Our opinion on this point is clearly formed from mature deliberation; we sincerely wish that a speedy and permanent peace may again lay the question at rest, and that our country will always have the spirit to assert, and the power to maintain, rights so essential to her existence and prosperity, and, even by the concession of our enemies, so consistent with sound reason, and the fundamental principles of international œconomy.

Art. XIII. A practical Treatise on the Diseases of the Stomach, and of Digestion, including the History and Treatment of those affections of the Liver and digestive Organs, which occur in persons who return from the East and West Indies, with Observations on various Medicines, and particularly on the improper Use of Emetics. By Arthur Daniel Stone, M. D. Coll. Reg. Lond. Med. Soc. pp. 291. Price 6s. Cadell and Davies, London, 1806.

AMONG the most irksome toils of reviewers, we may enumerate that of attempting to characterise produc-

tions, which, containing but little in addition to what has been already said on the same subject, can afford but little matter for either praise, censure, or comment. Although we are obliged to admit that the work before us is one to which this complaint will in a great measure apply, it is but justice to remark, that, although not abundant in original remarks, it plainly evinces that the author is competently informed, on the topics which he has discussed.

The first part contains some introductory observations on the structure of the stomach and intestines, on digestion, chylification, &c. From the coagulation of milk in the stomachs of animals, the Doctor conceived, that it probably was necessary for milk to be deprived of its watery part, in order to produce its solution; he therefore made the following experiments, to which he appears to have been led by those of Scheele and Deyeux, and the later observations, on the formation of chyle, by Werner.

' An ounce of skimmed milk was coagulated by twenty drops of muriatic acid, the liquor was filtered through fine moslin, and forty drops of muriatic acid were added to the curd; this mixture was again filtered; the curd was somewhat less in quantity, and in finer particles; to the curd remaining after the second-filtration, eighty drops of muriatic acid were added, and the solution was complete: a scruple of dried nitron was added to this solution, and the curd in fine particles was again precipitated with effervescence; another scruple of nitron was added, and almost the whole of the curd was redissolved.

' An ounce of skimmed milk was coagulated as before, with twenty drops of muriatic acid, but it was not filtered; forty drops, and afterwards eighty drops of muriatic acid were added to the unfiltered mixture, as in the former instance to the filtered curd, but nothing like solution of the curd in the whey was produced, nor even on the addition of larger portions of acid. pp. 28,29.

From these it is inferred, that, on the coagulation of milk by the gastric fluid, the watery part is absorbed, and in part passes the pylorus; that the curd is afterwards dissolved by the gastric fluid in the stomach; that this solution gives a precipitate in the duodenum, on being mixed with the bile, which precipitate is true chyle.

In the second part of this work, we find the history of diseases of the stomach. Under this head, observations are offered on the vitiated state of fluids in the stomach; marasmus, repletion of the stomach; poisons; the state of the stomach, and abdominal viscera, produced by hard drinking; pyrosis; melæna; hypochondriasis; sick head-ach; pain of the stomach, &c. As nothing particularly worthy of notice occurs here, we proceed to the third part, in which the treatment of the different morbid states of the stomach is explained.

Dr. S. severely reprobates the too frequent employment of violent emetics in ordinary cases; the question of course recurs, what are too violent and too frequent. Yet on the whole, we readily agree with the tenour of his observations on this subject, and especially on the exhibition of antimonial emetics in dropsical cases, or in the disorders of infancy and childhood.

The treatment of the stomach, injured by the presence of acidity, by poison, by repletion, and when enfeebled in old age, appears perfectly to coincide with the opinions generally adopted by the best informed of the profession.

While treating of marasmus, the Doctor avails himself of his prescriptive right, and favours us with a formula which, for the sake of our readers, or rather of their cooks, we have the pleasure of at least transcribing.

'About two pounds of lean beef cut in slices, with the hock of a ham of about the same weight, and a knuckle of veal weighing about eight or ten pounds, and a moderate quantity of mace and salt without any other spice, are to be covered with water in a stock-pot, and to be stewed about seven hours, and then strained; the strained liquor when cold, becomes a thick jelly, from which the fat is to be taken off; the jelly is then to be cleared with whites of eggs, and passed through a jelly-bag:—the produce in jelly, from the above proportions of meat, should be about six quarts; a table-spoonful of which, made fluid over the fire, may be taken once in an hour, or every two or three hours, as may be found best to suit the individual stomach for which it is prepared.'

This is indeed a *bonne bouche* when contrasted with "sagapenum with aloes, in pills or a bolus," in the opposite page. With all deference to the gentlemen of Warwick Lane, we venture to suggest the propriety of adopting a few such formulæ in the new pharmacopæias, the compilation of which we understand is now so much the object of their care.

The treatment of diseases dependent on a residence in hot climates, of those proceeding from the drinking of spirituous liquors, &c. appears to be in exact accordance with generally received pathological principles, and consequently deserves no particular notice.

With respect to the style of this work Dr. Stone has exposed himself to censure. If perspicuity be most particularly required in any one species of writing, it is in that which is employed to convey instruction on those important points, which so intimately concern the happiness of mankind. But this essential quality, we regret to remark, is too frequently sacrificed, in the present work, by a negligent or affected structure of the sense; in consequence of which, a period is sometimes found to extend through two or three pages; and even to form a whole chapter, as in that which is devoted to the treatment of pyrosis.

Art. XIV. *A Treatise on the Art of Bread-making*, wherein the Mealing-Trade, Assize Laws, and every circumstance connected with the Art, is particularly examined. By A. Edlin. 12mo. pp. 216. Price 4s. 6d. in Boards. Verner and Hood, 1805.

WE have not met with any work, since the commencement of our labours, wherein the author has taken so much pains to collect, condense, and methodize his materials, as in the neat little volume before us. Scarcely any thing, but a good alphabetical index, seems wanting, to render it a most complete epitome of all which has been generally known, relative to this essential article of human subsistence. The author has divided his work into 40 chapters, and these into short sections, by a series of numbers in the margin, according to a good old method, which we are sorry to observe the modern refinements in printing have nearly banished from English publications. These chapters are, I. The Natural History and Cultivation of Wheat. II. Observations on the Mealing Trade. III. On the Analysis of Wheat Flour. IV. On the Analysis of Yeast. V. On the Theory of Fermentation in Bread. VI. On the Preparation of Bread. VII. On the Substitutes for Wheaten Bread. VIII. On the Preparation and Preservation of Yeast. IX. On the Structure of a Bakehouse. X. On the Manner of regulating the Assize of Bread. An Appendix contains the evidence given by some master bakers, journeymen, and others, before a Committee of the House of Commons, in 1804, respecting the expenses of baking in and near London; to which are subjoined ample tables of the assize of bread, the weight of small loaves, &c. As we have not room to extract from this volume, which is worthy of general perusal, we shall only make a few observations on its contents, *seriatim*. In the concise but clear account of the nature and cultivation of wheat in chap. I. we are rather surprized to find the author omitting all mention of the mildews or blights,—which have, in late years, so distressingly lessened its produce,—except the quotation in a note from Mr. Marshall, respecting the effect of the Berbery Bush (*Berberis vulgaris*) on the growth or ripening of wheat. This influence, then mysterious, the meritorious labours of the worthy president of the Royal Society, Sir Joseph Banks, promise fully to explain: *early cutting* of blighted or mildewed corn, with long exposure in the field, seem the only method yet discovered of lessening the evil. That the use of threshing-machines, now become so general, should also have escaped our author, when writing sect. 31, of this chapter, is, to us, unaccountable.

In describing the practice of the Corn Exchange, in Mark-lane, sect. I, of chap. II. our author has omitted all mention

of the Wednesday's market, and by mistake, mentions ~~one~~ month as the usual time of payment for corn bought there on board of ship, instead of *two* months, which is the London factor's established credit. Sect. 5. Describing the management of wheat in large granaries, considerably over-rates the necessary trouble and expence in turning and screening it, unless, indeed, it was intended to be kept 30 years, as there mentioned! The effects ascribed in sect. 10, to thunder-storms on granary wheat, seem improbable, and are contrary to our experience on the subject. The instructions in sect. 2, for guarding against the ravages of insects on granary corn, are very judicious. In sect. 16 and 20, by some inadvertency, our author has described a gutter or spout *in the lower mill-stone* for delivering the meal, which, on the contrary, is thrown out on all sides, by the centrifugal force of its motion, into the cavity between the stones and their case; whence it is at length driven onwards to a wooden spout which conducts it to the meal-trough. It appears from some recent microscopic researches of Dr. Joseph Banks, that the *sharps* mentioned in sect. 22 and its two notes, are composed of the germ or bud provided for the future plant, and have their distinct properties, from the flour properly so called. We cannot agree with our author, sect. 35, in his high encomiums on Mr. Rustal's hand-mill with vertical stones, for grinding flour in private families; it looks very pretty on a model, or in an engraving, but where has it succeeded, or become general in practice? In the first 26 sections of chap. III. we have the analysis of one pound of the seed of wheat, which grew on a well cultivated soil; the result in sect. 26, is as follows, viz.

	oz. dr.
Of Bran.....	3 0
— Starch.....	10 0
— Gluten.....	0 6
— Sugar.....	0 2
— Loss	<hr/> 2 0
	<hr/> 16 0

In some of these weights there appears to be an omission of 8 drams, besides a loss of two oz., the nature of which should have been better ascertained.

Our author informs us, sect. 29, that he proved the above analysis, by mixing the products of half a pound of wheat, viz. 5 oz. of starch, 3 drams of gluten, and 1 of sugar, rubbing them together into a very fine powder, to which a sufficient quantity of warm water, and a tea-spoonful of yeast was added; this was afterwards kneaded, suffered to rise, and baked; it produced a light, good, and well-tasted loaf, exactly as if com-

mon flour had been used. In another experiment, sect. 31, jinglass was substituted for the gluten of wheat, and good bread thereby produced. In chap. iv.—after relating the experiments upon yeast, which indicated the carbonic acid gas which it contained, to be the active or fermenting principle therein—the author relates (in sect. 8 and 9) an experiment, whereon this gas obtained from carbonate of lime, or from fermenting beer, well shook up in a close corked bottle with water, was used instead of yeast in the making of bread, with perfect success. In sect. 33, of chap. vi. he details an experiment of making *leavened* bread without any yeast or addition of carbonic gas; to 1 lb. of flour, was added a sufficient quantity of warm water, at 68° Fahrenheit; this was covered up, and set in a warm place for 36 hours, when being found in a state of fermentation, but quite sour, 40 grains of prepared *kali*, with a little warm water, were added to it; it was kneaded, and instantly increased much in bulk; two hours after, another pound of flour, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ounce of salt were added; after standing two hours more it was made into loaves and baked; these proved much lighter, and more spungy than common bread, and had not the least taste of acidity. The same chapter contains an account of the methods adopted in making various sorts of wheaten bread; in sect. 55, &c. that used by the bakers in London for their quarten loaves, is minutely described. In the following chapter, the information collected by the Board of Agriculture, our author, and others, during the late scarcities, on the subject of bread made of the flour of barley, buck-wheat, rye, maize, rice, oats, beans, pease, and potatoes, and of varions mixtures of these, is amply detailed; in speaking of rice, sect. 40, our author, without due consideration we conceive, has quoted, from the reports of the Society for bettering the condition of the poor, an assertion that, 'one gallon of rice contains as much food and useful nourishment as six gallons of wheat!' In describing oat-bread, sect. 33, he does not seem to be aware of the mode used in making oat-cakes, in Yorkshire, and the northern parts of our island: after the sponge has been fermented and prepared, and is reduced, by the addition of water, to the state of thin batter, a proper quantity of it is poured on the centre of a large light board, previously strewed with dry coarse oat-meal: the board is then briskly whirled about in a horizontal position, in order that the lump of soft batter by its centrifugal motion may spread itself out upon the board, into a very thin and large circular cake: this the baker smartly throws on to a large iron plate, heated to a proper degree by fire beneath: it quickly requires turning, which is effected by laying one of the cakes, previously baked and partly cooled, upon it, and dexterously shoving the sharp edge of the board underneath it, when it is again cast

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on the bake-stove as before : these cakes, when cooled to hardness a little, are laid across packthread lines stretched beneath the ceiling, where they remain till used : it would be impossible, by rolling, to form such large thin and light cakes, as are produced by this whirling process.

In sect. 1 and 2, of chap. ix. our author describes a common bake-house and oven ; and in sect. 3, the modern improvements of heating ovens with coal instead of wood, and of heating water at the same time, are detailed : the several tools and utensils used in a bakehouse, are also described in this chapter. In the next we have a concise, but clear history of the assize laws, respecting bread and bakers, which will be found interesting to most readers, particularly those who reside within the London Bills of Mortality, where the assize of bread is regularly set every week. The few defects we have pointed out in the work, are all which appeared to us in the course of a careful perusal ; while its merits in every other respect are great and striking. Its price is extremely moderate, the language is clear, and the work neatly and correctly printed ; it cannot fail of amusing the inquisitive reader, and will probably be found useful to a large class of the community.

Art. XV. *A Tour through Asia Minor and the Greek Islands: with an Account of the Inhabitants, natural Productions, and Curiosities.*
By C. Wilkinson. 12mo. pp. 424. Price 6s. Darton & Harvey, 1806.

THIS imaginary tour is intended to describe the present state of the countries it includes; interweaving with an agreeable narrative, some pleasing information, particularly of classical geography and ancient history. The route which it pursues is extensive and interesting, presenting objects which in celebrity and importance yield to none on the surface of the globe. But a tourist of this sort is most agreeable, when least seen ; — consideration which Mr. W. has overlooked.

It is, difficult to pursue a long work with equal care and labour ; we should more readily excuse some deficiencies, if various scenes had been delineated with more spirit and minuteness. Over many a foot of sacred or classic ground, immortalized by deeds divine or heroic, the traveller has passed with hasty step, where he might have lingered without loss of time. For it is not a glance *en passant* at numerous objects, which affords real instruction to a volatile youth, but the steady contemplation of some striking finished pictures, which fire his imagination, and afterwards recur uncalled to his remembrance.

The composition of this volume betrays marks of haste. Is an age when good writing is become common, an accurate

and elegant style is so essential to a finished education, that a volume intended for the instruction of youth, on any subject, should be written with care. Mr. W., however, is entitled to the higher praise of furnishing, to the susceptible mind, lessons of the purest morality.

A map is properly attached to the volume. On the whole, we willingly recommend it to the youthful reader, as presenting him, in an attractive form, with much correct and useful information.

Art XVI. *The Poor Man's Sabbath.* A Poem; by John Struthers. Second Edition, pp. 33. Price 1s. Williams & Co. London. Ogle & Co. Edinburgh, 1806.

IT sometimes happens that we are under the necessity of apologizing to ourselves for the defects of a poetical essay, by remarking the excellence of the author's principles, and the integrity of his intentions. The poem before us requires no such excuse. Its poetical qualities are by no means contemptible, even at a time when tolerable versification is almost as general as the use of the pen. Mr. Struthers' poem is commendable, for a strain of pious sentiment, for peculiar accuracy of description, for correct and impressive imagery, and for a style, with some exceptions, appropriate and pleasing. The following extract will display the nature of its merits, and will also exhibit some of its obvious defects. The first line is unfortunate, and some expressions, particularly in the third stanza, are scarcely intelligible.

' Family instruction clos'd with fam'ly pray'r,
Each seeks, for soft repose, the peaceful bed,
The Sire except, who, by the ev'ning fair,
To muse along the greenwood side is led.
The setting sun, in robes of crimson red,
And purple gorgeous, clothes the glowing west;
While sober Eve, in misty mantle clad,
One bright star lovely, beaming on her breast,
With feet all bath'd in dew, comes slowly from the east.

Now clos'd, the daisie droops its dewy head,
Hush'd are the woods, the breathing fields are still;
And soft beneath the meadow's flow'ry pride,
Creeps, gurgling, on its way, the mossy rill.
Sublimely solemn rolls the mingling swell,
With many a mournful moving pause between,
Of streams, wild rushing down the sounding dell,
Of sighs that burst around from shapes unseen,
And flocks that distant bleat, far o'er the flow'ry green.

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Fast follows on the cloud of night's dark noon,
 And bright the fires of heav'n begin to blaze;
 While o'er the misty mountain's head, the moon
 Pours, in a streaming flood, her silver rays.
 White, on the dimpling pool, her radiance plays,
 Where shadows faintly glimmering, shadows mar;
 And clear the cottage window, to the gaze
 Of solitary wand'r'g, gleaming, far
 Up yonder green hill side, appears a glittering star.

The poor man, here, in converse with the sky,
 Behold! enraptur'd o'er the uplands stray;
 His bosom swells, he heaves the frequent sigh,
 And tears start sudden, ere he well knows why.
 'Tis Nature melts him—verging to decay,
 Thro' all her works, she pours the weary groan;
 Yea, all these orbs that burn in bright array,
 He marks them all in glory rolling on,
 To that dark goal where drear Oblivion spreads his throne.

' And thou, my soul!' he cries, ' shalt thou survive,
 ' When, quench'd in years, these living fires shall fade?
 ' Yes, in immortal vigour thou shalt live,
 ' And soar and sing when ev'ry star is fled,
 ' For so hath GOD—GOD thy Redeemer said:
 ' A higher song, than seraph's, shall be thine,
 ' Yea, tho' in mould'ring clay this flesh be laid,
 ' These very lips, with energy divine,
 ' Heav'n's high resounding harp, in holy hymns shall join.'

pp. 29—32.

Art XVII. *Designs for Elegant and small Villas*, calculated for the comfort and convenience of Persons of moderate and of ample Fortune; carefully studied and thrown into Perspective. To which is added, a general Estimate of the probable Expence attending the execution of each design. By E. Gifford, Architect. Royal 4to. Plates 26. Price 11. 11s. 6d. J. Taylor, 1806.

THIS volume appears under a considerable disadvantage, as it includes the *second* part of a 'series of select Architecture,' of which the *first part*, is only 'in forwardness for publication.' It is true, that each design, in a work of this nature, is a distinct and individual article, yet in tracing the complete suite, a Reviewer, and we presume a purchaser, becomes more advantageously acquainted with the author's mode of conception, his peculiar style, and his attention to the *proprieties* exacted by his profession. We shall, therefore, only apprise our readers, that this *second* part consists of ten Edifices, the elevations of which are distinctly shewn in two views, the front and back front, on

separate plates : the plans forming a third plate. We commend the intention of the author in ‘*throwing*’ these views into perspective ; as we well know that geometrical elevations never present correctly that appearance and effect, which a building will possess when executed ; and although this may be of no moment in smaller subjects, yet in structures of considerable extent, or magnitude of parts, the difference becomes sensible to the eye, and is not always satisfactory to the proprietor.

In the designs before us the author has studied novelty of external appearance, and convenience as to internal œconomy. Indeed, if the inhabitants of these cottages do not enjoy themselves comfortably, it will not be the fault of the builder, or of his house. Some of the plans are good : solidity is the preminent character of all the compositions.

In this climate we must have fire places ; and fire places must have chimnies ; Mr. G. has felt the difficulty of rendering these pleasing, and has adopted several contrivances for concealing or disguising them. We shall only add that his ‘General Estimate’ consists of a mere mention of the probable expense of construction, which varies from five hundred, to twelve hundred pounds, exclusive of carriage.

Art. XVIII. *Third Report of the Committee, for Managing the Patriotic Fund, established at Lloyd's Coffee-House, 20th July, 1803. 8vo. pp. 712. Price 7s. 6d. 1806.*

THIS report is dated March 1, 1806 ; its details commence with the 12th March 1805. It is the register of a most memorable and illustrious period, recording the unrivalled triumphs of British valour, and the liberality of British gratitude. It consists of official papers from the Gazette, the proceedings of the Committee, and the lists of contributions.

‘The subscriptions and dividends (from the commencement) amount to 338,693l. 11s. 8d. exclusive of 21,200l. 3 per cent consols subscribed in stock.

‘The sums paid and voted amount to 105,276l. 2s. 4d ; by which relief has been afforded to 2140 officers, and privates wounded or disabled, and to 570 widows, orphans, parents, or others relatives of those killed in his Majesty’s service : honorary gratuities have also been conferred in 153 instances of successful exertions of valor or merit.’

‘A considerable number of claims, arising from various actions are still expected : particularly from the relatives of more than 400 of the brave men who fell in the late glorious engagements off Trafalgar and Ferrol.’

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need to be particularly cautious lest our gratitude to God be lost in the tumult of patriotic exultation, and our prayers and humiliations be superseded by national vain glory and self dependence. It is particularly necessary, on such an occasion, to 'search and see whether there be *any evil way among us*: the examination would be a considerable antidote to pride; and we sincerely wish it might be an incentive to reformation.

FAST SERMONS.

Art. XIX. *Repentance and Reform, the only ground of Divine Favour*
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AN unscriptural notion is intimated in this title, which, however, the sermon does not avow. It laments our departed statesman in animated language, expatiates on his merits, and condemns, with just vehemence, several prevalent vices in different classes of the community. It betrays a few blemishes which we have neither room nor inclination to notice, but which a political or ecclesiastical antagonist would readily detect; and some rather fretful allusions, which are injudiciously retained in a printed sermon, however locally just and expedient.

Art. XX. *Christian Sympathy weeping over the Calamities of War.*
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AMERICAN LITERATURE.

Art. XXII. *American Annals, or a Chronological History of America,* from its Discovery in 1492 to 1806. 2 vols. By Abiel Holmes, D.D. A.A.S. S.H.S. 8vo. pp. 481. Cambridge (New England) 1805.

THE history of the rise and settlement of nations is highly interesting to the human mind, but the origin of those on the Old Continent, with the exception of some mentioned in the sacred scriptures, is enveloped in the shades of mythology and fable; nor can the curious be gratified with any distinct account of their progress, in the early state of society and colonization. The case, however, is different with respect to the modern and civilized inhabitants of the New Continent. For more than three hundred years since its discovery, it has been receiving an accession of population from Europe. It has already been the theatre of great actions and events; and a new empire has arisen in it, whose influence on the commerce and relations of other nations, is rapidly increasing. The events which have taken place in this New World, subsequently to its discovery, may now be accurately ascertained, unblended with such legendary tales, as have darkened and distorted the early annals of most nations. Local histories of particular portions of America, have been given by a variety of writers, but no attempt had been made to furnish the outline of its *entire* history. To supply this desideratum is the object of the present work, in which Dr. Holmes has adopted a chronological form, and by this means, avoiding all extraneous matter he has collected into this closely printed volume, a mass of information that certain persons would have extended to three. Beginning with A. D. 1492, when Columbus made his first voyage, he has arranged, under each year, the events which occurred in every part of the western continent. In consequence of this arrangement, the narrative of distinct parts and settlements is disjoined and broken, but it possesses the advantage of giving an orderly and chronological view of the gradual progress made in the discovery of America, and the establishment of European settlements.

In a short and modest preface, Dr. Holmes professes, that 'it has been uniformly his aim to trace facts, as much as possible, to their source.' The sincerity of this profession is proved by the references to original writers, which are unusually numerous. Authorities and vouchers in the form of notes, are properly subjoined to almost every page, and they evince the extent of the undertaking, as well as the fidelity, diligence, and accuracy of the author. The plan which he had projected, appears to be well-executed. In plain and unornamented language, he has given a concise, luminous, and undisguised statement of facts. His style is respectably free from solecisms. His mode of writing is neither declamatory nor diffusive: he has not produced, under the name of history, a florid composition, in which the fidelity of narration occasionally yields to the harmony of diction, or the charms of an antithesis; neither has he combined distant incidents and events, to support a favourite theory, nor attributed them to fictitious or inapplicable causes; but he has pursued the proper province of annals in collecting a rich fund of information, to acquaint his readers with the real course and contemporary state of occurrences.

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Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, hoping to find a passage to India by the western ocean, after experiencing many painful delays, received a commission from Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain, to make a voyage of discovery. On the third day of August, 1492, he sailed from Palos, in Spain, with three vessels and ninety men, on a voyage the most grand and daring in its design, and the most important in its result, of any that had ever been attempted. Leaving the Canary Islands on the 6th of September, he observed on the 14th a variation of the compass toward the west, which greatly alarmed his mariners. On the 12th of October, when the crews were clamorous and ready to mutiny, he discovered land, which proved to be Guanahana, one of the Bahama islands, which he named San Salvador*. On the 15th of the same month he discovered Cuba, and on December 6th, arrived at an island called by the natives, Hayti, which, in honour of the kingdom by which he was employed, he named Hispaniola. Here, through the carelessness of his sailors, one of his ships was lost, on which occasion he received the most friendly assistance from the natives. An Indian caïque or prince, sent his subjects to save what they could from the wreck, and placed armed men to guard the goods preserved, who stood by them 'all day and all night.' 'All the people,' says the admiral, 'lamented as if our loss had concerned them much.' Such were the people destined to be speedily exterminated, by the rapacity and cruelty of the Spaniards. Leaving 38 men in a fort erected on the harbour which he called Navidad, Columbus sailed for Spain in January 1493, and after a dangerous voyage, arrived, March the 15th, at Palos, where he was received with the highest tokens of honour by the king and queen. On the 25th of September, he sailed from Cadiz on his second voyage, with three ships of war and fourteen caravels, furnished with all necessaries for settlement or conquest, and having on board 1500 people, some of whom were of the best families in Spain. On Lord's day, November the 3d, he discovered and named Dominica, one of the Caribbee islands; and soon after Marigalante, Guadaloupe, and 50 other islands, in his run to Navidad, where he arrived November the 28th, but the fort was demolished, and not a Spaniard to be seen. By their licentious conduct, they had drawn upon themselves the resentment and attack of the natives, and had all miserably perished. Sailing to another part of Hispaniola, Columbus founded the first town built by Europeans in the New World, which, in honour of the queen of Castile, he named Isabella. Leaving Peter Margarite, with 360 foot and 14 horse, to reduce the island to the obedience of their Catholic majesties, Columbus sailed for Cuba in 1494, and on the 5th of May discovered Jamaica, where he met with much opposition from the natives. Returning to Hispaniola, he met his brother Bartholomew, after a separation of thir-

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The gold remitted to Europe, stimulated private persons to make equipments at their own expense. Among the earliest of these adventurers was Alonso de Ojeda, a gallant officer, who had sailed with Columbus in his first voyage. Patronised by the bishop of Badajos, and aided by the merchants of Seville, he sailed from St. Mary's, in Spain, on the 20th of May 1499, with six ships. Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine gentleman skilful in navigation, accompanied him. They discovered land in 5° north latitude on the coast of Paria, and proceeded as far as Cape Vela. They ranged a great extent of coast, beyond that on which Columbus had touched. Amerigo, by the early publication of his voyage, was erroneously supposed to be the discoverer of the continent, which not long after *unjustly* obtained his name, and has ever

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since, by universal consent, been called AMERICA. If priority of discovery should confer the title, Columbus himself must yield to CABOT.

In 1500 Vincent Yanez Pinzon sailed from Palos with four caravels. He stood boldly to the south, and was the first Spaniard who passed the equinoctial line. He discovered Cape Augustine in eight degrees south latitude, and, sailing to the north-west, found and named the river of the Amazons. The fertile district, 'on the confines of which Pinzon stopped short,' was soon more fully discovered by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who had been sent by the king of Portugal with 13 ships to the East Indies. Standing far to the westward to avoid the calms on the Guinea shore, he accidentally discovered land in 10° south latitude, and coasted that part of South America which has since been called Brazil. In this year Columbus, through the intrigues of his enemies, was sent in chains to Spain, by Bovadilla the new judge and governor of Hispaniola. Caspar de Cortereal, a Portuguese gentleman, sailed from Lisbon with two ships, at his own cost. He arrived at Newfoundland, proceeded to the mouth of the great river of Canada, and discovered the coast of Labrador. In a second voyage, undertaken to find a passage to India, it is presumed that he fell by the hands of the Esquimaux, or perished among the ice. Roderigo de Bastidas, sailing from Cadiz for the western continent in 1501, discovered all the coast of Terra Firma, from Cape Vela to the Gulf of Darien. Early in 1502, a new governor was sent to Hispaniola, with a fleet conveying 2500 persons, among whom were ten Franciscan friars. Columbus, acquitted at the court of Spain with a promise of restitution, sailed in May on his fourth and last voyage. Soon after his arrival at Hispaniola, a fleet sailed for Spain, on board of which were Bovadilla, and the greater part of the enemies of Columbus. Being overtaken by a storm soon after their departure, they were swallowed up with the immense wealth they had unjustly acquired. After the storm, Columbus sailed to the continent, discovered the bay of Honduras, proceeded along the main shore to Cape Gracias a Dios, and thence to the isthmus of Darien, where he gave name to the harbour of Porto Bello, on account of its beauty and security. Leaving it in January 1503, he entered the river Yebra. The fertility of the country, and the abundance of gold induced him to attempt a settlement in its neighbourhood, but meeting with a repulse from the natives, he relinquished the design; being driven by a storm on his return, he was obliged to run his ships ashore at Jamaica, where he was detained eight months. In 1504, this distinguished navigator returned to Spain, but found, to his inexpressible grief, that his friend and patroness queen Isabella was dead. In this year some adventurers from Bretagne and Normandy, went in small vessels to fish on the banks of Newfoundland. The war against the Indians in Hispaniola, was renewed in 1505. Ovando, the Spanish governor, under the pretence of a respectful visit, treacherously seized Anacoana, a female caíque, who was carried in chains to Domingo, and condemned to be hanged. This atrocious conduct toward the Haytian princess, 'who had been uniformly friendly to the Spaniards,' completely humbled the natives, who, without farther resistance submitted to the Spanish yoke.

The year 1506 was distinguished by the death of Columbus, at Valladolid, in Spain; and by the introduction of the sugar-cane into Hispaniola, from the Canary Islands. In 1507, the inhabitants of Hispaniola,

computed at a million when the island was discovered, were reduced to sixty thousand. 'Those of the Lucayo islands, to the number of twelve hundred thousand, wasted in the mines of Hispaniola and Cuba, or by diseases and famine, had previously become extinct.' In 1508, Juan Diaz de Solis, and Vincent Yanez Pinzon, discovered the Rio de Plata. Negroes were now imported into Hispaniola* from the coast of Guinea, because the miserable natives were found unequal to the labour of the mines and fields! Thomas Aubert made a voyage to Newfoundland, and was the first who sailed up the river St. Lawrence to Canada. On his return he carried over some of the natives to Paris. Alonso de Ojeda made an unsuccessful attempt in 1509, to settle a colony on the east side of the Gulf of Darien. At Puerto Rico a settlement was established in 1510, but the natives, treated with rigour under the Spanish government, soon became extinct. Cuba was completely conquered in 1511; and negroes, in greater numbers than before, were imported into the Spanish colonies.

Vasco Nunez travelled across the isthmus of Darien in 1513, with 290 men, and from a mountain on its western side discovered the ocean, which, from the direction in which he saw it, took the name of the South Sea. In his passage over the mountains, 600 Indians were destroyed like brute beasts. Vasco ordered about 50 to be torn to pieces by dogs†. In the following year, a dissension arose between Vasco Nunez and Arias d'Avila, who had been appointed governor of Darien. Vasco, charged with calumny against the government, after some formalities of a trial, was beheaded — This history we see, like all others, is a record of crimes and punishments.

Panama, on the South Sea, was peopled by Arias in 1515, who explored 250 leagues on the coast. The islands of Bermudas were also now discovered by Gonsales Oviedas. In 1416, Juan Diaz de Solis, reputed the ablest navigator in the world, was sent by the king of Spain, to find a passage to the Molucca or Spice islands, by the west. He entered the Rio de Plata, but attempting a descent in the country, he and several of his crew were slain by the natives, who devoured the bodies within sight of the ships. The hateful and iniquitous traffic in slaves between Africa and America, was first brought into a regular form in 1517, by some Genoese merchants, who bought for 25,000 ducats a patent granted

* On this island, the first theatre of Spanish cruelty, both towards the original inhabitants and African negroes, the negro-slaves, in modern times, have *first* succeeded in forcibly regaining their liberty, and by their horrid massacres have dreadfully retaliated the cruelties of Europeans. Can the believer in a Providence fail to remark this coincidence? Does not the righteous Governor of the world still 'visit the iniquities of the fathers upon the children, to the third and fourth generation?' We look forward with much apprehension to the *next* national punishment for national crimes. Rev.

† *Canum opera nostri utuntur in præliis contra nudas eas gentes: ad quas rabidi insiliunt, haud secus ac in ferros apres aut fugaces cervos.* P. Martyr, 180.

to a Flemish favourite by Charles V. for the exclusive importation of 4000 negroes into America. This year is also memorable for the discovery of the coast of Mexico by Francisco Hernandez Cordova. Sailing in February from the Havanna, he made land at Cape Catoche, the eastern point of that large peninsula, to which the Spaniards have given the name of Yucatan. They were here astonished at the approach of five canoes, full of Indians, decently clad in cotton garments. Cordova, continuing his course to the west, passed Campeachy, and some leagues to the northward of that place, 47 of his men were killed by the natives, and himself mortally wounded; he died at Cuba. Fifty Spanish, French, and Portuguese ships were this year employed in the cod fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, sent Juan de Grijalva, in 1518, to Yucatan, with four ships. He discovered the southern coast of the bay of Mexico to the river Panuco, and first called the country New Spain. Five hundred leagues, on the northern coast of this bay, were discovered the same year, by Alvarez Pinedo. In Grijalva's voyage, the Spaniards heard of the rich and extensive empire of Montezuma. In 1519, Velasquez dispatched the celebrated Hernando Cortes, with eleven ships and 550 soldiers for the invasion of Mexico. Arriving with the armament at the river of Tobasco, he took possession of the town, though defended by 12,000 warriors. The next day he marched his troops to a plain, where he was attacked by an immense body of Indians, who wounded above seventy Spaniards by the first discharge of their weapons. 'The Spanish artillery did great execution; but when the cavalry came to the charge, the Indians, imagining the horse and rider to be one, were extremely terrified, and fled to the woods and marshes.'

Cortes next sailed to St. Juan de Ulua, where he received ambassadors from Montezuma, with rich presents, and a message, expressing his respect for the Spaniards, but his disinclination to receive any visits at his court. After settling the town of Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, Cortes, determined to conquer or to die, destroyed his fleet, and commenced his march towards Mexico. In his way he first conquered, and then associated in his interests, the Tlascalans, a warlike people, less civilized than the Mexicans, and at enmity with them. Taking with him many thousands of his new allies, he forced his way through the most formidable opposition to Iztapalapan, six miles distant from Mexico, and the next day marched his army along the grand causeway, which extended in a straight line to that city.

The timid and impolitic generosity which suffered them to enter this splendid capital without molestation, the treacherous seizure of Montezuma, the battle of the temple, the death of the captive monarch, the disastrous retreat of the Spaniards on the night of July 1st 1520, the battle of Otompan, and their arrival at Tlascala, are succinctly related. During these transactions, Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, sailed through the Straits which bear his name, into the great Southern Ocean, which he called the Pacific.

Under the year 1521, the author narrates the preparations made by Cortes at Tlascala, for the conquest of Mexico, the fruitless attempt to take the city by storm at the commencement of the siege, the terrible

havock made of the Mexicans in its progress, and the persevering resistance of Quautemotzin* the new king.

The particulars of this conquest of Cortez are highly interesting, but they are extremely well known; and on this account we notice his expedition very slightly: for the same reason we shall pass hastily over the history of the conquerors of Peru. The courage and the patriotism of the unfortunate prince and his subjects, render them very dear to us, while the baseness, the ingratitude, and the cruelty of the treacherous Cortez, have stamped his memory with indelible infamy. Our author rarely indulges any reflections; but those which he has introduced on this conquest, are just and impressive.

'Nothing was wanting but a good cause to render this conquest one of the most illustrious achievements recorded in ancient or modern history: but while we admire the action as great, we condemn it as criminal. The sanguinary customs of the Mexicans were indeed abolished, by the introduction of European principles and manners; but at what expense? The victors in one year of merciless massacre, sacrificed more human victims to avarice and ambition, than the Indians, during the existence of their empire, devoted to their gods. The forms of justice were established; but by what means? The Indian princes were despoiled of their territory and tributes, tortured for gold, and their posterity enslaved. The Christian religion was introduced; but in what manner, and with what effect? 'Her mild parental voice,' to use the words of Clavigero, 'was suborned to terrify confounded savages; and her gentle arm was in violence lifted up, to raze their temples and hospitable habitations, to ruin every fond relic, and revered monument of their ancestry and origin, and divorce them in anguish from the bosom of their country.'

In the account of the Spanish settlements, the intelligent reader will recognise the use which has been made of Dr. Robertson's history; but the additional matter contained in the notes, will convince him, that the best Spanish writers have been consulted. The account of the settlements made by the French, English, and Dutch, is so interesting and satisfactory, that we shall continue the article in a succeeding number. Our readers, by combining the narratives we propose to insert, with the historical view of North American settlements in our first volume, p. 321, will complete the account of European colonization in that vast continent.

* His name is commonly written *Guatimozin*, or *Guatimotzin*, but in the orthography of names, our author follows the Abbé Clavigero, who was a native of Vera Cruz, and acquired the Mexican language.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

Art. XXIII. *Voyage en Moree, &c.* Travels in the Morea, to Constantinople, in Albania, and in many other Parts of the Ottoman Empire, in the Years 1798, 1799, 1800, 1801. By F. C. H. L. Pouqueville, M. D. Member of the Commission of Sciences and Arts of Egypt, &c. in 3 vols. 8vo. about 1180 pp. Paris, 1805.

EVERY circumstance that can render any region interesting to us, attaches to the scene of this important work. We have travelled it over and over in our youth with the illustrious great whose ashes it entombs; and the studies of early life are so dear to our remembrance from associated circumstances, that they communicate their influence to every subject on which they were employed. With what varied emotions we consider the various scenes whose records we then perused, and renew the pleasure we formerly felt in contemplating the great, the warlike, the wise, and, in some sense, the virtuous! Whether we trace its political, moral, or intellectual changes, the retrospect of Greece is highly affecting. The most enlightened country of Europe is become the most barbarous; and instead of excessive admiration, excites a compassion that borders on contempt: the cradle of freedom is become its grave; the mother, or rather the adopting queen, of genius, art, and science, is the degraded slave of ignorance and cunning; and the country, which had heard from the sacred lips of apostles, what philosophers had in vain struggled to learn, or pretended to teach, is, we fear, the prey of every vice that rages in the wilderness of brutal oppression.

Those who thus consider the state of the inhabitants will eagerly explore, in the company of M. Pouqueville, the eventful regions which they have travelled with Strabo and Pausanias. The places remain, the relics of departed greatness; the stadium, the theatre, the temple, remain—empty! The scenes of the curiously balanced constitutions of democracy still exist, but the inhabitants groan beneath a foreign yoke. One picture might serve for the whole political condition of the country; a crafty Greek, holding with trembling hand the subordinate power which he possesses, beneath the frowns and extortions of an arrogant Mussulman, and venting on his more degraded fellows, who crouch beneath his feet, the clamours of insatiable avarice, and the fury of exasperated pride.

May not some hardy deliverer restore the glory of his country? Certainly: if courage and subtilty could effect it. M. Pouqueville assures us that it still produces vigorous bodies and hale constitutions, with a degree of cunning and address which few nations can rival. But where is the public spirit, the mutual communication and confidence, the hope of distinction? Where is the enlightened, comprehensive, energetic mind, to see, to combine, to invigorate?

Greece was originally peopled at various times, and by heterogeneous colonies from different regions. Ancient distinctions, we find, still exist nearly unimpaired. The strength of the inhabitants is split into small divisions, and the ancient principles of confederation are forgotten. Liberty is no more; Education is no more: the love of glory is departed.

From these various considerations, we fear that all the relief the Greeks can expect, is only a change of masters. The events

of every hour render this subject increasingly interesting: we shall therefore enter at some length into the volumes before us.

Few travellers have braved the difficulties of an excursion in the Morea. Fewer still have traversed from coast to coast, or have ventured to quit the high roads leading from city to city. Hence the internal parts of this peninsula have continued little known to us; and our information has rather been collected incidentally, than obtained through any direct or regular channel. Many distinct tribes of people, also, continue undescribed; and if we are not obliged to the traveller before us for introducing us to a Grecian world entirely new, yet we readily acknowledge that many of his descriptions are more complete, as to their parts, if not more interesting as to their subjects, than most which have hitherto reached us. His flattery of Bonaparte, and his virulence against Britain and British ambassadors, must be considered as the order of the day in the country where he publishes. We are content he should "speak daggers," if "he use none." They have not excited our anger, but our smile; or rather our regret, that a man of understanding should find himself under the necessity of submitting to such a degradation.

Accident frequently accomplishes, what no talents or qualifications could hope to achieve, or even dare to attempt; and the misfortune of captivity that overtook our author, gave him facilities for obtaining information, which perhaps nothing else could have acquired. M. Pouqueville accompanied the army of Bonaparte to Egypt, in the character of Physician and *Savant*. He quitted that country in a Leghorn tartan, the 14 Brumaire An. 7. (November 1793.) on his return to France; but was taken in the neighbourhood of Calabria, by a corsair of Tripoli; who being alarmed at the appearance of a frigate, separated from his prize, which was carried by the prize master into the port of Navarin, in the Morea. From hence, after a time, M. P. was sent, with others, to Constantinople, to which city he travelled partly by land, partly by water. He met with a considerable number of his countrymen, prisoners in the Seven Towers, whence he was at length released, and quitted Turkey Sept. 9, 1803. Being thus thrown, unintentionally, on a coast, which is seldom visited by Europeans, and crossing in his journey an extent of country, into which travellers rarely penetrate, he had opportunities of observing and reporting many subjects, comparatively new, as well as extremely interesting. His profession, also, afforded him the privileges of a more intimate intercourse with persons and families, than can be enjoyed by passing strangers, however strongly recommended.

Our readers will readily imagine, that no man acquainted with the events of their antient history, could visit Mantinea, Argos, Olympia, Corinth, Thebes, Sparta, &c. without experiencing the most lively sensations; and the literati will acknowledge their obligations to our author, not merely for descriptions of places, and objects which he saw, but for various hints capable of being rendered extremely useful, if ever this country should be subjected to the investigation of enlightened curiosity.

These volumes contain a great variety of subjects. They hardly admit of analysis, but may be considered as composed of three or more distinct narrations. First that of Dr. P. himself, describing his route from Navarin to Constantinople; secondly, that of the officers, his friends, from whom he had been separated, when taken prisoner, from Patras to Constantinople; thirdly, various information collected from the garrisons of Zante and Corfou, sent to the general prison, and par-

ticularly from M. M. Poitevin, Charbonnel, and Bessieres, who, though prisoners, enjoyed some degree of liberty, and had opportunities of making a variety of remarks, which they communicated to the writer before us.

Instead of attempting to follow the order of this work, we shall select for translation such passages, as contain information not readily to be found in other writers: presenting first, those which relate to Geography, rather antient than modern; secondly, those which describe the present races of Greeks; and thirdly, those which refer to the concerns and character of the Turks.

The present state of those once flourishing Greek cities which are distinguished in antient history by their magnificence, their importance, or the splendour of their exploits, cannot but be interesting to every liberal mind.

The site of Mantinea is now a marsh. This city was of an oval form; the remains of its walls are in some places six feet high, and more than eighteen feet thick, solidly built with stone, brought from Mount Artemisius. It had four principal gates, leading to Achaia, to Argos, to Tegea, and to Megalopolis. While M. P. was on the spot, a Greek discovered, in a place probably allotted to the Stadium, a small statue, in perfect preservation. Perhaps more might be found by digging. The plain of Mantinea is about five leagues in length, from North to South; and three in breadth. It is strewed with fragments of columns, and ruined inscriptions. The sides of the hills around it are covered with vineyards. About a league from Mount Menalus, towards Tegea, is the field of battle, wherein the Nelson of Boeotia fell in the arms of victory.
 "THIS SPOT WHERE SO MANY HEROES REPOSE, IS COVERED WITH LAURELS AND ROSEMARY, WHICH DECORATE THEIR UNKNOWN SEPULCHRES." Vol. I. p. 85.

Olympia appears to have been ascertained by M. Fauvel, one of our Author's companions in adversity. He observed some workmen of the Aga, who were then, fortunately for him, digging for building materials. They had not dug far, when they discovered several shafts of columns, fluted, exceeding six feet in diameter. The first row of stones of the cells were five feet in height, and preserved their original situation. Our Author affirms, on his own observation, that a traveller who should engage in researches in this place, could hardly fail of his reward.

"If he no longer finds the temple of Jupiter, or that of Juno, or of Vesta, he will discover other objects worthy of his curiosity. Let him take advantage of the autumn season, when the trees have shed their leaves, and the earth is washed by the rains. At every step he will meet with antient shields, fragments of bas reliefs, and bronze trophies, easily recoverable, by a little labour, from that load of adventitious soil, which now overwhelms them. I affirm, without hesitation, that the remains of early ages are here preserved. The inundations of the Alpheus, which occasionally extend to great distances, have carried sand and earth over the greater part of the Altis and Olympia. The leaves fallen from the trees, and other vegetable substances, amassed, have also contributed to elevate the soil: but in general the accession does not exceed six or eight feet in height, which is daily increased by new layers, brought by the torrents from the mountains, as well as by the river, in the time of floods. Such is the situation of Olympia. The village of Miraca, at no great distance, in the side of a hill, is wholly inhabited by Greeks, and is governed by an Aga. These good people would, for a trifle, dig at

any spot to which they might be directed. They collect bronzes; and among the number of medals which they find, some valuable ones might doubtless be selected. pp. 124—130.

Corinth claims our notice, as a city interesting by its antient character, the eye of Greece; where the arts and sciences, commerce, philosophy and libertinism, held divided empire. It also occupies a distinguished place in the Gospel history; and the manners of its citizens, in those early ages of the church, their mistakes, and inadvertencies, continue to be of use even to ourselves, distant as we are, both in time, and place, by the admonitions, exhortations, and reproofs, to which they gave occasion. M. P. thus describes this city.

"Let not the traveller seek in Corinth the remains of those sumptuous edifices which formerly were its ornament, and its boast. Corinth, once the sanctuary of the fine arts, Corinth, that city where riches, luxury, and pleasures strove to outvie each other, that Corinth, in short, which filled the universe with its fame, is now but a mere huddle of houses, a decrepid city, the inhabitants of which, tormented by the double scourge of misery and disease, for the most part resemble phantoms returned from the sepulchre.

"It would be difficult to fix the site of Corinth, were it not absolutely ascertained by the Isthmus, and did not the murmur of the two seas, which rebounds from the Geranian Mount, rouse the traveller from his melancholy meditations.

"Corinth, built at the foot of Mount Geranus, but nearer to the sea of Crissa than to the gulf of Salamine, possesses at this time, several wealthy commercial houses, which nothing but profit can detain in a situation so unhealthy. It is commanded by the fortress of Acrocorinthus, into which Christians are not admitted. But the cannon of this citadel cannot protect the city; indeed, by reason of its immense elevation, it seems to be constructed principally for the eagles which soar around it.

"The antiquities of Corinth offer nothing but eleven doric columns. Hot baths, perhaps those of Helen, still exist at the foot of Mount Geranus; and the traveller may visit the situation occupied by the stadium, where the ancients celebrated games in honour of Melicerta.

"From this spot, now waste, it is about an hour's walk to Acrocorinthus. In the precipices of this rock nothing is seen but shafts of columns, half-broken bases, and entire pillars of the most highly valued marbles. It is said, that this citadel yet preserves several interesting remains of antiquity; such as the fountain of Pyrene, wholly constructed of white marble, a quantity of bas reliefs, and various unpublished inscriptions.

"From this sublime point, what a magnificent view extends over the whole of Greece! Achaia, Sicyonia, Argos and its eminences, the Patthenius, the Taygetus, Naupli and its Palamides, the wide-spread gulf of Argos, and the shores of Laconia, are beheld at a single glance. At the feet of the spectator lie the sea of Lepanto, and the gulph of Enghia. Megara, Salamis, and Eleusis form part of the view. The vessels quitting the Piraeus at Athens, in its days of prosperity, might be discerned from this point. Epidaurus, Egina, Calauria, are in front, as likewise is the region of the Hermionides, which mingles its azure tints with those of the sea. The eye wanders also on Mount Cytheron, and examines the double peaks,—but the whole soul of the spectator is insufficient for the objects which surround it. The isthmus is called by the modern

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Greeks, *hexamilli*, the six mile way; that appellation describing its breadth.' pp. 147—150.

The present Mistra is a mile distant from where the ancient Sparta stood. The Persian column is not wholly destroyed, though every day it suffers additional mutilation. The walls of the temple of *Venus armed*, the remains of that dedicated to Hercules, still exist; and perhaps, could they be explored, might afford interesting discoveries. They are constructed of extremely beautiful marble. The Russians erected redoubts in the theatre, so pompously described by Pausanias and Plutarch. What a change! Russians at Sparta! Redoubts in the theatre!

On the banks of the Eurotas are yet remaining those marbles, wherein were fixed the rings for mooring the gallies, which at certain times of the year came up as high as Sparta. The Dromos is marked by its ruins: the ranges of seats are visible; a few exertions in clearing away the earth, would discover the whole course of it.

Argos exists only in its name: a few bas reliefs and effaced inscriptions, on a rock in its vicinity, mark the place where it stood; but the present Argos is wholly modern, and is about an hour in circuit.

The pass of the Thermopylæ, whose hot baths still remain, is holy to every warm and patriotic heart. ' Several heaps of stones which are seen a little beyond the pass, are marked by the tradition of the inhabitants, as the tombs of the Spartans; and the Greek physician of Salone had not failed to remark this particular to the French travellers. On approaching this defile, Ibrahim Tchiaoux, who had no doubt procured information at Salone, as to the safety of the route, began to put his pistols in order, and to make ready an enormous musquet which he carried. One of the prisoners inquiring his reasons, he answered, ' it is because in this pass there are people like myself, land corsairs, who strip travellers of their property;' and, indeed, the Thermopylæ are nothing but a cut-throat gullet, where it would not be remarkably safe to indulge meditations on the interesting events of past ages.' Vol. II. pp. 39, 40.

On inspecting the plain of Pharsalia, which should rather be called a valley, the narrator thinks it wonderful how the sagacious Pompey, who occupied the most advantageous situation, could possibly suffer a most certain victory to escape him. At the present moment Pharsalia seems to have concentrated in itself the whole industry of Thessaly. The plain is covered with cultivation of various kinds. Numerous villages embellish the hills which surround it; and the city is not inferior in importance to the fertile territory, of which it is the capital. p. 48.

The writer describes many places as striking by the beauty of their views, and the fertility of their soil: they produce whatever human life requires; or rather, they are capable of producing it in great abundance, did not the political circumstances of the country oppose the bounty of Providence. The reader, no doubt, will be desirous of M. P.'s account of a spot so celebrated as the Elysian fields especially, adjacent as they are to what was formerly venerated as one of the mouths of Hell.

' The Elysian fields might still be the residence of a happy population. There might return, in the midst of romantic landscapes, beneath a tranquil sky, and surrounded by a fertile territory, those days which the poets delighted to celebrate. In no country of the world can the eye

comprehend more extensive prospects; whether it wander toward Mount Pindus, when the sun, rising above its summits, awakes the birds which slumber beneath the bushes of the valleys, or whether it follow this luminary, when setting behind the Acroceraunian mountains. The Elysian fields extend about five leagues from north-east to south-west, and have nearly six thousand fathom (about seven miles) in their mean diameter.

' Their limits are determined to the north, by Mount Tomarus and its forests; to the east, they end at the margin of the lake Acherusia, and at the city of Janina: Mount Cassiopeia, and the lesser Pindus, confine them to the south; and the mountainous territory of the ancient Elea, closes them on the west. Several streams, with a river which flows north of the lake, beside various rivulets, irrigate and enrich them.

' The lake Acherusia, respecting the situation of which modern geographers have differed, forms one extremity of the Elysian fields. It is from north to south about four leagues and an half: in breadth, from east to west, about three thousand four hundred fathoms (nearly four miles.) Its environs, rugged and sharp toward the east, are agreeable and charming toward the south and west. The position of an island about half way in this lake, but nearest to the eastern shore, has occasioned a nominal division of it into upper and lower; but both are formed by one common stream, which the ancients called Cocytus, and this name is still given to it by some of the moderns. Derived, no doubt, from innumerable glaciers, and supplied by those unknown receptacles of water which exist among the mountains adjoining to the Pindus, this river, after having long continued its course under ground, rises in the lake Acherusia, nearly in its center, at a place called by the Greeks *Perama*. The sharp and peaked hills on the right bank of the Acherusia, by receding form a semi-circle, or semi-oval, around the *Perama*, within which recess the Pacha has a pleasure-house. The Cocytus falls from the bank of the same name by nearly twenty mouths, through which its waters issue, each mouth equal in size to the trunk of a tree. To the north the lake also receives a little river, probably that of Dodona, as well as the contributions of many rills, which fall into it, after having wandered in the plain, or along the fragrant declivities which surround this side of the lake.

' However surprizing the falls of the water of the Cocytus may be thought, the little island in the lake, offers to the observer, perhaps a still greater subject of wonder. It is inhabited by Greeks, who reside in a village standing north and east; they have also a monastery on it, but, although the major part of these inhabitants were born on this island, they have not been able to reconcile themselves to a phenomenon which regularly occurs, especially during autumn, to their great consternation. Hardly is the month of October arrived, when this island seems to be placed on a tremulous basis; more than thirty violent shocks are felt in a day, accompanied with explosions like the report of heavy cannon. The Greeks, alarmed by these subterranean commotions, and by the noises which accompany them, quit their houses in great affright, and loudly implore assistance from heaven. Nevertheless, it should appear that the danger attending this phenomenon is not equal to the dismay it produces.—The inhabitants have no tradition of equal antiquity with the production of this island, which is, perhaps,

destined to be engulfed in the lake Acherusia, or to rise above it, (as the islands of *Santorini*, and the *Kameni*, have risen above the sea) so as to repel the waters of the lake, and thereby to cause an inundation over the Elysian fields.

The waters of the lake Acherusia are bad, and fetid ; but those of the Cocytus have all the freshness and limpidity possessed by the purest springs. A multitude of fish is found in the lake, especially cray-fish. Great numbers of aquatic birds cover it in all seasons ; many barks cross it in all directions, and the Pacha has a pleasure-boat on it. An infinity of hitherto unnoticed plants flourish on its banks, on the volcanic soil of the island which it contains, or float along the surface of its waves. It has its calms, its tempests, its currents, its drifts, and during the rains, it covers almost double the surface which it occupies at other times. The waters of the Acherusia, after long restraint between its banks, unite to form the Acheron, which loses itself three quarters of a League to the south, under the mountain Cassiopeia, in the gulph of Avernus.

Dreaded spot ! but a spot which now neither exhales the smell of sulphur, nor exudes bitumen : distinguished only as the place where the Acheron disappears from view. The ancients who beheld this phenomenon prolonged its course to the midst of hell, which they could no where better place, than beneath the mountains of Epirus. Twelve leagues from Mount Cassiopeia, the waters of the Acheron re-appear from underground, in the environs of a village called *Velistri*, and continue their course to the gulph of Arta, formerly the gulph of Ambracia, in which they issue, after having formed a morass. All the mountains east and south of the lake are calcareous. The vibrations of earthquakes which they experience, occur, as throughout the Peloponessus, in autumn : while Mount Tomarus, and the mountains of the Chimera, rarely feel any shocks. Especially after a summer which has been hot and dry, the inhabitants of Greece await, with great apprehensions, these convulsions of the earth.' Vol. III. pp. 37—48

Such is the present state of a country, which furnished not a few of those poetical descriptions of the unseen world, embellished by inventive genius, with the very acmé of horror. But we must not conceive of this neighbourhood as having been at all times the same as it is at present. We may indeed say with Lucretius,

Nusquam apparent Acherusia templa,

"No hell, no sulphurous lakes appear ;" but the narration of Dr. P. sufficiently implies that even now a subterranean Volcano manifests itself by its effects : and that the natives of the place themselves are not reconciled to the dangers of their situation. This volcano three thousand years ago, might be more superficial, than it is at present ; then it emitted steams of sulphurous exhalation, whose stench was insupportable, like that of the Solfaterra, near Naples, at certain times ; and then the gases which it disengaged, possessed the same morbid properties, as those which now distinguish the Grotta del Cane. This lake, then, was another Dead Sea ; the seat of another Vesuvius or Etna. Hence when any person, whether by accident or design, was subjected to its influence, the functions of life were suspended, and apparent death ensued : but if withdrawn from thence in time, the gradual effects of the fresh air, by

restoring respiration, had every appearance of recalling the departed to the regions of life and day. What ample scope for delusion did these phenomena afford ! And to what bewilderings of fancy during the interval of interrupted rationality, were they not accessory !

Pausanias describes the Cocytus as flowing with a most unpleasant water : in the same place as the Acherusian marsh, and adjacent to the river Acheron. He gives it as his opinion, that Homer having seen these places, had the boldness to insert in his poems, as well those particulars concerning souls in Hades, as the names of infernal rivers, which he derived from the rivers of Thesprotia. Lib. i. cap. 17.

We venture to conjecture, that as this Cocytus, whose waters are now salubrious, was in the days of Pausanias unpleasant, and undrinkable, so, in the days of Homer, its streams were absolutely fatal. In fact, the volcano was then, if not in vigorous activity, yet very recently extinguished ; and it should appear, that the fiery Phlegethon itself was a stream of *lava*, issuing in the adjacent waters, and producing at once the most terrific noises, the most nauseous stench, and the most deadly fumes.

Ἐνθά μὲν εἰς Αχέροια Πυρφλεγούσων τε ρίνσι,
Κακοῖς δ', οὐ Στυγός οὐδατος εἴη απορριξ.
Πέμπτη τι, ξενοσίς τε δυών πολέμων εριστήσι.

Od. K. 513—515.

Where Phlegethon's loud torrents, rushing down,
Hiss in the flaming gulf of Acheron ;
And where, slow-rolling from the Stygian bed,
Cocytus' lamentable waters spread :
Where the dark rocks o'erhang the infernal lake,
And mingling streams eternal murmurs make.

POPE.

The Latin poets accommodated the images they borrowed from the Greeks, to places and objects in their own country ; and it is probable, that when the Greek writers referred these terrestrial phenomena to the unseen world, they borrowed, in their turn, ideas derived from a source, which must not be sought in Egypt, where no prototype existed, but in a region remotely east ; the origin not of Greece only, but of the whole western world.

Quitting these topics, which, however interesting by their antiquity, we cannot further discuss, we proceed to notice what is of more immediate and instant interest. The public has heard much of the Mouths of Cattaro, and they are still the subject of great contention between the Emperors of Russia, Austria, and France. In what their importance consists, our readers may gather from the following description :

' Nature does not offer in any country of the world, a port equal to the Rhizonis gulph, better known in modern days, by the term Mouths of the Cattaro. Let imagination conceive of three vast basons, extending very far into the surrounding country, and communicating with each other only by passages capable of being regularly defended ; and this will suggest some idea of the ports of Cattaro. Afterwards, a single inspection of the plans of Coronelli, which, however, are not perfect, will convince us that fancy itself is hardly adequate to the detail of these wonderful harbours.'

The largest fleets may find shelter in these deep recesses, or arms of the sea; and from the screens of rugged mountains around them, where, in all probability, exist only forests and pasturages, might suddenly issue unsuspected squadrons, stored with the whole apparatus of war.

'Sublime declivities circumscribe the ports of Cattaro; and the levels in their neighbourhood, are inhabited by a population whose character is intrepidity. Every where nature exhibits decided marks of superiority, with an air of grandeur, degraded by no imperfections. In short, the Mouths of the Cattaro ought to be regarded as the most important port of the Adriatic; and to whomsoever this belongs, the dominion of this sea belongs of course. It would be useless to detail the other advantages felt and appreciated; and which Germany, being in possession of this point, would no doubt render manifest. East of these Mouths of Cattaro, rise the mountains inhabited by the Montenegrins; a lofty and brave race, breathing nothing but war. The half savage state in which they exist, the view of their mountains, and of the sea dashing with noisy vehemence on the shores of Dalmatia, in short, the tumults of the elements, are their delight. They are the remaining and unchanged descendants of the ancient Illyrians. Most of them profess Christianity, but all of them worship independence only! They sometimes forsake the scenes of their nativity, to enter the service of the Emperors of Russia; and their constitutions are rarely able to support the change of climate; and although better fed and better treated than when at home with their families, the greater part of these adventurers perish.'

pp. 288, 289.

Our traveller, afterwards favours us with an intimation which needs not the spirit of prophecy to explain it, that 'every thing leads to the belief that a warlike marine may issue one day from the bottom of this gulf, *to proclaim and defend the liberty of the Mediterranean.*' And in another place he allows ten years to this event. Can a more complete developement of the projects of Buonaparte be desired? Certainly French politicians have not studied in vain the science of geography! and what the policy of Louis XIV. originated, the insatiable avidity of this chief (if it be the will of Providence) will accomplish.

That other nations as well as the French knew the importance of this situation, appears from the contract made by the British Government with the late Col. Williams who was in the Austrian service, to cut 40,000 trees for the use of the British navy. That officer commanded the forts at the Mouths of Cattaro; not far from which he had an estate. This permission of the Austrian government, we are well informed, was no gratification to Buonaparte.

(To be continued..)

Art. XXIV. De la Prépondérance maritime et commerciale de la Grande Bretagne, &c. On the Maritime and Commercial Preponderance of England, or the Interests of other Nations relative to England and France. By M. Montbrion. 1 vol. 8vo. Price 5 francs, 75c.

THE author, as may be expected, endeavours to prove, that the commercial system of England is essentially hurtful to the other trading nations, and proposes to prove the necessity of a coalition against her;

he declaims on the rights of Neutrality, the Navigation Act, the balance of Commerce ; and after pointing out to other nations the inconveniences which they experience from the power and prosperity of England, he directs them to measures, both military and commercial, suited to remedy the evil ; and has also the generosity to instruct Great Britain in the system which she ought to pursue.

Art. XXV. *Memorial pour la Defense de Places, faisant suite au Memorial pour l'attaque*; a Memoir on the Defence of fortified Places ; companion to a Memoir on Attack ; a posthumous Work of Cormontaigne, Marechal de Camp. 1 vol. 8vo. plates. Price 11 francs, common paper, fine ditto, 20 francs.

M. CORMONTAINGNE, Marechal de Camp, an engineer officer, inferior, say the French, to Vauban alone, was author of a very highly esteemed Memoir on the attack of fortified places. The present work treats of the duty of infantry, cavalry, and artillery in sieges, and details every operation with the most scrupulous minuteness and exactitude. M. C. had composed the work for his own direction, and it will probably be considered as a fit companion to his former memoir, and a useful acquisition to the engineer.

Art. XXVI. *Les Monumens antiques, expliquees par la Mythologie*. Ancient Monuments explained by Mythologie. 1 vol. 8vo. To subscribers 12 francs per vol. ; to non-subscribers, 15 francs.—Paris.

THE materials of this work are collected and arranged by M. Alexandre le Noir, Administrator of the Museum of French Monuments, and the plates are designed and engraved by M. Laurent Guyot. The first volume only is published, containing 50 plates, outlines, &c. and includes the principal part of the letter A. Two volumes at least will be published annually. The subjects are treated with clearness, precision, and brevity, and the editor's information is drawn from competent sources.

Art. XXVII. *Galerie antique, ou Collection des Chefs d'œuvres, d'Architecture, de Sculpture, et de Peinture antique*. The antique Gallery, or a Collection of the principal productions of Antiquity in Architecture, Sculpture and Painting. Price 8 francs per Number, published monthly.

THIS work was commenced several years ago, but the political troubles which intervened, occasioned its suspension. It is now recommenced by different persons, and the known enterprize and abilities of its present publishers (M.M. Treuttel and Würtz,) leave but little doubt of its success. M. Legrand, Architect of Public Monuments, and whose reputation in the arts and in literature is well established, will superintend the letter-press : and M. Boutrois will inspect the engravings. The suite is intended to embrace the Chefs-d'œuvres of antiquity : The first division of the work will be composed of the Grecian remains, and

more particularly those relative to Athens; afterwards will succeed Syria, Egypt, Sicily, Magna Grecia, Italy, and France; one entire division will be devoted to Oriental monuments. Each country will form a complete division, and may be purchased separately.

DUTCH LITERATURE.

Art. XXVIII. *Bibliotheek van theologische Letterkund*: The Library of Theological Literature, vol. 1. 8vo. 700 pp. Amsterdam.

FOUR numbers of this work constitute a volume, containing papers on various subjects suited to the plan expressed in its title. The first number includes, among other things, a very full account of the Dutch Missionary Society, established at Rotterdam in 1797, for the propagation of christianity among the heathen. Several Missionaries from this society, now labour among the Hottentots and Caffres in Southern Africa; we presume that their names, history, and circumstances, are well known to our readers.

The second number contains an account of the state of religion in *West Friesland*. The numbers of the different denominations in this province are detailed; it appears that there are 127,722 Calvinists. 897. Lutherans.—15,145. Catholics.—12,955. Baptists.—24, Remonstrants, 20.—United Brethren or Moravians, and 1026 Jews. It also furnishes a similar statement of Dutch Brabant, Gueldres and Groningen.

The third number pursues the same plan, and includes the provinces of *Zealand* and *Utrecht*, with the island of *Walcheren*.

The fourth number contains an estimate of the Protestants in France; an account of the church at *Dordrecht*, and a variety of other religious information. The volume is completed in a table of contents.

GERMAN LITERATURE.

Art. XXIX. *Vollständige Naturgeschichte der schädlichen Forstinsekten*; the Natural History of Insects, which are detrimental to Forests. By J. M. Bechstien and L. Scharfenberg. vol. 1. 4to. 290 pp. 3 plates. Leipzig, 3rxd. 8gr. 1806.

THE editors of this work intend to investigate in two sections the history of those insects which are injurious to forests. In two succeeding sections they will give the history of useful insects, which favour the growth of trees by destroying noxious animalculæ, and which of course should be carefully distinguished from the pernicious.

The present volume commences with an introduction to the history of insects in general, and noxious insects in particular: this is followed, 1. By a description of the hurtful insects of the first two orders of Linnaeus. 2. Remarks on the devastations which they commit. 3. Description of their species, under which head the authorities of Linnaeus and Fabricius are followed. These descriptions are concisely detailed with clearness and accuracy, and, what is evidently of prime importance, the synomyms are carefully preserved. Two new species discovered by *M. Bechstien*, are very minutely described; these are 1 *Bostrichus Pinastri*, which has frequently been confounded with the *Bostrichus typographus*, and 2 the *Bostrichus fraxini*.

Art. XXX. *Handbuch der Weltsgichte; Manual of Universal History.*
By Professor Poeliz. 2 vols. 8vo. Leipzig, 3 rxd. 16gr.

THIS work deserves to be distinguished from the many Universal Histories, which are continually crowding the press. The author in his introduction enforces the utility of studying universal history. He proceeds to distinguish the course of events into the following periods ; the first comprises the space from the origin of the human race to Cyrus; the second commences with Cyrus, and terminates with Alexander; the third reaches to Augustus; and the fourth from Augustus to Charles-le-franc, A. D. 769. To this fourth period the author has subjoined a sketch of the history of literature up to the end of the fifth century. The fifth period continues the history to the discovery of America. The history of the different nations is geographically arranged, beginning with China, and proceeding to Hindostan, Media, Bactria, Aria, Babylonia, Assyria, Phœnicia, Palestine, Arabia, Asia Minor, Scythia, Africa, Ethiopia, Egypt, Carthage, Greece, Italy and Rome.

The recital of events is accompanied by observations on the manners and dispositions of different nations, on the causes of the rise and decline of empires, and on the state of the arts and sciences. The work will be continued.

ART. XXXI. SELECT LITERARY INFORMATION.

• Gentlemen and Publishers, who have works in the press, will oblige the Conductors of the ECLECTIC REVIEW, by sending information (post paid) of the subject, extent, and probable price, of such works; which they may depend on being communicated to the public, if consistent with their plan.

A Correspondence has been opened with various parts of the United Kingdom, for the purpose of procuring interesting Literary intelligence, on the authenticity of which the public may depend.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Mr. Johnes having succeeded so well with Froissart, is employed in a translation of *Joinville*.

Mr. Combe of the British Museum, will soon publish an appendix to the valuable work of his father, Dr. Combe, intitled, *Nummi veterum Populorum et Urbium qui in Museo G. Hunter. M. D. asservantur.*

The Rev. Roger Kingdon is translating another part of Dr. Less's *Geschichte der Religion*; the *Beweiss der Wahrheit Christlichen der Religion*.

Beausobre's introduction to the New Testament is reprinting at Cambridge, being used in that University as a lecture book.

The Rev. R. Yates, author of the Monastic History of St. Edmund's Bury, is engaged on a comprehensive and con-

nected Historical Memoir of the various Public Charities in London.

Rev. W. Hazlitt proposes to publish Fifty-two Sermons in 2 vols.

Mr. Rogers, author of the *Pleasures of Memory*, has nearly finished an epic poem on the horrors of Jacobinism.

RUSSIA.

M. de Labensky, inspector of the palace of the Hermitage at Petersburg, proposes to publish by subscription, A Description of the Picture Gallery of that Palace. Every number will comprise 15 plates, 4to, with explanatory letter-press in Russian and French. Subscription for each number, to be published every four months, 10 Rubles. The work will extend to 16 volumes, and be completed in 5 years.

The correspondence of the Empress Catherine II., with Count Romanzoff,

relative to the operations of the war against the Turks, in 1773 and 1774, has been lately published at Moscow.

Count Potocki, has printed, at his own expence, a few copies of his Archeologic Chart of European Russia, 6 plates in Atlas folio, and 2 leaves of explanation.

In 1804, there were published in Russia, 15 Journals, Political and Literary, and 115 works, chiefly translations. Among them were Sterne's *Life of Tristram Shandy*; the Voyages of Anacharsis, Rousseau's Maxims, &c.

General Alexander Palizyn has translated Lord Macartney's Embassy into the Russian language; it will be published, and illustrated by a great number of Engravings.

DENMARK.

M. P. A. Mænster has recommenced, at Copenhagen, a new Danish periodical work, entitled, the *Athenæum*. The first and second numbers are published, and contain, among other articles, 1. An Essay on the Tombs of the Family of David, on Mount Sion, by Dr. Münter. 2. On Gymnastic Exercises, considered as an essential department of education. 3. On the Mythology of Scandinavia and Germany; by the editor of the work. M. M. believes that both are derived from the same origin. 4. On the different editions of the Classics; the author proposes to arrange them in 3 classes. 1. Superior and complete editions, for libraries and the learned. 2. Splendid editions for students. 3. Small or portable editions for schools. The number also includes an Essay on the Mode of Instruction in Design in the public schools.

SWEDEN.

M. Ruders, (whose remarks on Portugal communicated in letters was reviewed E.R. I. 80. 154.) has published a similar work, containing further particulars, under the title of *Portugisisk Resa*, &c. in a series of letters, 8vo. Stockholm.

Burrow's Travels in Southern Africa have been translated in an abridged form into the Swedish language, by Prof Olof Gravander, *Docens* at the University of Upsala, 8c. rengnus, 8vo.

GERMANY.

M. Steudel has commenced at Gotha a new periodical work, entitled, *Deutschland, Germany*. It will comprise the ancient and modern history, and the curiosities, of Germany, will be illustrated by engravings, and will be published in numbers, at uncertain periods. 3 Numbers will compose a volume.

At Brunswick, a collection of 110 Paintings, chiefly of the Italian and Flemish schools, was disposed of, by lottery, last May.

HUNGARY.

M. Fabriz, a Hungarian Poet, has published Metrical Translations of the Grecian Lyric Poets, Pindar, Anacreon, Sappho and others.

M. Koraz, another Hungarian Poet, has translated the first 8 books of *Eneid* into Hungarian verse of 15 syllables.

HOLLAND.

M. P. Van Winter has just published a very good Dutch Metrical Translation of Horace, and some specimens of a Translation of Virgil's *Eneid*.

FRANCE.

M. Felix Constance, proprietor of an estate in St. Domingo, has published at Bourdeaux, a Political examination of Modern Colonization, intended more particularly to decide, whether the French Colonies have been advantageous to the mother-country, or the contrary. (1 vol. 8vo. 2fr 50.)

ITALY.

M. Sestini intends to publish a complete System of Geographical Numismatics, in 12 volumes, folio; it will contain a description of the most interesting Coins and Medals of antiquity, and of all the Cabinets of Medals, public and private, in Europe.

The same author published a short time ago, a catalogue raisonné of the Medals in the Museum of Arigon, the proprietor of which published engravings of the most remarkable in 4 volumes, without any explanatory letter-press.

M. Sestini also intends to publish a ninth volume of his *Lettore e Dissertazioni Numismatiche*; it will contain the Grecian Coins and Medals of the Cabinet of Gotha.

A new Italian translation of the odes of Horace, by Celestino Masucco of Genoa, is announced for publication. This is the 47th Italian translation of these odes.

The Canon Rosario Gregorio, has published at Palermo; the first two volumes of Reflections, on the History of Sicily, from the times of the Normans (*considerazioni sopra la storia di Sicilia, dai tempi normanni sino ai presenti*, 8vo. Palermo.)

TURKEY.

The Turkish Press at Scutari has already published editions of the Persian Poets; there is a considerable demand for them in that Empire.

Art. XXXII. LIST OF WORKS RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

We hope that no writer will take exception at the omission of his work in the following list, as information respecting it may not have reached us:—the insertion of any work should not be considered as a sanction of it; the list consisting of articles, which we have not examined.

ARCHITECTURE.

Specimens of Continental Architecture; with 8 engravings; by R. Smirke, Junr. F. A. S. 1l. 10s.

AGRICULTURE.

The British Farmer's Cyclopaedia, or complete Agricultural Dictionary; by T. Potts, 4to. part 1, 10s. 6d. To be completed in 12 monthly parts.

Observations on the form and management of Water-Meadows, and the Draining and Irrigating Peat-bogs; with an account of some extraordinary improvements, conducted for his Grace the Duke of Bedford, T. W. Coke, Esq. and others; by W. Smith, 10s. 6d.

BIOGRAPHY.

Memoirs of Dr. Joseph Priestley, to the year 1795, written by himself; with a continuation to the time of his death, by his son J. Priestley; and Observations on his Writings; by T. Cooper, and the Rev. W. Christie, 8vo. 10s. 6d.

Biographical Memoirs of the late J. Warton, D. D., to which is added a literary correspondence, with eminent persons, reserved by him for publication; by the Rev. J. Wooll, A. M. 4to. 1l. 7s.

Memoirs of the Life of the Rev. Dr. Trusler, Part 1, 4s.

Some account of the Life and Writings of Lope Felix de Vega Carpio; by H. R. Lord Holland, 8vo. 9s.

EDUCATION.

Lectures on Natural Philosophy, with an appendix, containing a great number and variety of Astronomical and Geographical Problems; also some useful tables, and a comprehensive vocabulary; by M. Bryan, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d.

Elements of the Grammar of the English Language; to which is subjoined a History of the Language; by C. Coote, L. L. D. 2d. edit. 4s.

Chironomia, or a treatise on Rhetorical Delivery; illustrated with many figures; by the Rev. G. Austin, M.A. 4to. 2l. 2s.

A sequel of Dr. Mavor's Spelling-book, intended as an Introduction to Dr. Blair's Class-books, 2s. 6d.

Italian Extracts; or a Supplement to Galignani's Lectures; by A. Montucci Sanese, L. L. D. 7s.

M. Du Mitand's tables of the French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages, being the first 4 of the 12 now publishing on the same scale, and comprising the French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, English, Russian, Latin and Greek languages; each table, 10s. 6d.

LAW.

A treatise on Conveyancing, with a view to its application to practice; by R. Preston, Esq. 10s.

Protest against the Decision in Westminster-hall, on the Articles exhibited against Lord Melville; with extracts from the evidence adduced in the course of the trial, &c.

An abridgement of the Law at Nisi Prius, Part 1, 16s.

The Principles and Law of Tithing; by T. Plowden, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. 16s.

A report of the trial of Mr. Joseph Kelly, Pay-master of the 32nd Regiment of Foot, for the murder of Captain W. Harrison of the same regiment, before the Right Honourable Justice Mayne, at the spring assizes for the City of Cork, Saturday April 5, 1806, 6d.

An address to the visitors of the incorporated Society of Doctors of Civil and Canon-law. Parts 1, and 2; by N. Highmore, L. L. D. and M. D.

MEDICAL SCIENCE.

A treatise on Hernia Humoralis to which are added, Remarks on the Opacity of the Cornea: elucidated by cases; by T. Luxmoore, 5s.

Dr. Willan, on Vaccine Inoculation, 4to. Plates, 15s.

Observations on the Nature, Kinds, Causes, and Preventions of Insanity; by Thos. Arnold, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, &c. corrected and improved; 2 vols. 1l. 1s.

Admonitory Hints on the Use of Sea-Bathing; by J. Peake, 1s. 6d.

MILITARY SCIENCE.

Hints for the Improvement of the

British Volunteer Force, and on the Duties of Officers, commanding Partisan Corps; by Capt. R. Murray, 2s.

The History of the Campaigns of 1805, in Germany and Italy; by W. Burke, late Army Surgeon, 6s.

Copy of a letter to the Right Hon. W. Windham, on the simplifying and more easily arranging the Volunteer system; by an Inspecting Field Officer, 1s. 8d.

Proposals tending to augment the Force of this Country, and encourage the Martial Spirit of the People; by J. York, Esq. 6d.

MISCELLANIES.

The Friend of Youth, or Candid Advice to Parents and Guardians, in the choice of such Trades, Professions and Occupations, as may be best suited to their Taste and Genius, to the present circumstances and future hopes of their respective children and wards, 4s.

The Principles and Regulations of Tranquillity; an Institution commenced in the Metropolis, for encouraging and enabling industrious and prudent individuals in the various classes of the community to provide for themselves; by the payment of small weekly sums; by J. Bone, 3s. 6d.

Thoughts on Trial by Jury in Civil Cases, with a view to the Reform of the Administration of Justice in Scotland; in a series of letters, 1s. 6d.

The Annual Register, New Series, for 1801, 8vo. 15s.

Tables of Simple Interest and of Commission Brokerage or Exchange at all the usual Rates per cent., constructed on a plan entirely new; by W. Stonehouse, 8vo. 11. 1s.

A review of the conduct of the Prince of Wales, in his various translations with Mr. Jeffreys's by N. Jeffreys, 5s. 6d.

A Letter to Mrs. Fitzherbert, in answer to a complaint that her feelings have been hurt, by the mention of her name, in the Review of the Conduct of the Prince of Wales; by N. Jeffreys.

A Letter to N. Jeffreys, on his Pamphlet, intitled a Review of the Conduct of the Prince of Wales, containing an examination into the motives of his Publication and its probable consequences, 2s.

Diamond Cat Diamond, or Observations on Mr. Jeffreys' review of the con-

duct of the Prince of Wales; containing a True and impartial view of Mr. Jeffrey as a Tradesman, Politician and Courtier, by Philo Veritas, 3s.

An Antidote to Poison, or a full reply to Mr. Jeffreys' attack upon the Character and Conduct of the Prince of Wales; containing several particulars, derived from authentic information; by Claudio, 3s.

A complete Vindication of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, relative to his Creditors; but not quite so complete a vindication of the Right Hon. W. Pitt, relative to his Royal Highness, 1s. 6d.

Letters from the Dead to the Living, or thoughts on the separated states of departed spirit; to which is added, the conflicts of passion, and final triumph of faith, an ode; by L. S. Abington, 1s.

A Letter to the Editor of the British Critic; occasioned by some remarks in that review, on a book entitled 'Cases of Pulmonary Consumption, &c. treated with Uva Ursi'; by the author of the above-mentioned book, 1s.

Miscellanies, in Prose and Verse; by Alexander Molleson, 12mo. 4s.

The Doctrine of Equivalents; or, an Explanation of the Nature, Value, and Power of Money; by Geo. Crawford, Esq. 5s.

The Third Report of the Committee, for managing the Patriotic Fund, from March 1, 1805; to Feb. 28, 1806, 8vo. 7s. 6d.

The Prose Works of John Milton, with a Life of the author; interspersed with translations and Critical Remarks; by Charles Symmons, D. D. of Jesus College, Oxford, 7 vols. 8vo. 8l. 13s. 6d.

POETRY.

The Spirit of the Mountains; with other Poems; by G. Taylor, sm. 8vo. 5s.

Miscellaneous Poems; by Margaret Patrickson, 2 vols. 7s.

Poetical Recreations; by A. Harrison, 2 vols. 10s. 6d.

Select Icelandic Poetry translated from the original; with notes, by the Hon. W. Herbert, 2 vols. sm. 8vo. 10s.

Tales in verse; Critical, Satirical, and Humourous; by Thomas Holcroft, 2 vols. 8s.

Daylesford, a Poem, 1s.

Essay and Poem on the Public Life of the late Mr. Pitt; by Thomas Shirley, 1s. 6d.

POLITICS, POLITICAL ECONOMY.

A brief examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain, during the administration of the Rt. Hon. W. Pitt; by the Rt. Hon. G. Rose, M. P. 5s.

The Blazing Comet, or Political Index; pointing out the successive changes that have taken place, in all the chief ministerial departments, from 1760, to the present time, 2s. 6d.

The Affairs of Asia considered, in their effects on the Liberties of Britain, in a series of letters, addressed to the Marquis Wellesley, late Governor-General of India; including a correspondence with the government of Bengal, under that Nobleman; by Charles Maclean, M. D. 5s.

Supplement to the Answer to the Inquiry into the State of the Nation, 1s.

Peace or War considered; by a Barrister of the Hon. Society of Lincoln's-Inn. 2s.

Fragments upon the Balance of Power in Europe; from the German of C. F. Gentz; by M. Peltier, 8vo. 8s.

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CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Academus, charging Mr. Jefferson, the author of Horæ Poeticæ, (See F. R. Vol. I. 417) with copying the poem, which we extracted in noticing that work, from the Rev. John Robertson's Letters on the Lord's Supper. Edin. 1794. On applying to Mr. Jefferson, we have received a very satisfactory explanation, which we insert in his own words.

' It seems Mr. Robertson had lost a child by death, and finding my piece inserted in the Evangelical Magazine for August 1793, under the signature of IOTA, suitable to his bereaved situation, he had placed it in his own volume; but in such a manner as might easily induce his readers to consider it as his own production. When I published my volume of Poems, I did not think the matter of sufficient importance to notice, little supposing that any one would accuse me of *such* a plagiarism; and especially in a composition, which I consider as inferior to some others in the work, the sentiments being little more than a paraphrase of the words of David on the death of his child.'

Mr. Wood's favour is duly received; and we have taken an opportunity of forwarding a few lines in answer.

W. K. will accept of our thanks, for his friendly offer.

ERRATA.

<i>July,</i>	Page 520, line 17, for inconsistent, read consistent.
	— 558, — reference — inference.
	— 559, — 2, — opinions — opinion.
<i>August,</i>	— 634, — 14; — Tesy's — Testy.
	— 638, — 27, — vocations — equivocations.
	— 638, — 28, — proequistituted — prostituted.
	— 658, — 24, — before Lord, <i>insert</i> saying.
<i>September,</i>	— 709, — 5, — which — of.